The SOVIET NAVY in WAR and PEACE

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The Soviet Navy in War and Peace

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СОВЕТСКИЙ ФЛОТ
В ГОДЫ ВОЙНЫ И МИРА
На английском языке

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Contents

Introduction 5
CHAPTER I. **PAGES OF REVOLUTIONARY GLORY** 11
1. Creation of the Russian Navy and Its Role in Russian History 11
2. The Navy's Role in Geographic Discoveries and Exploration of Seas and Oceans 26
3. Revolutionary Traditions of Russian Seamen. . . . 29
4. The Navy's Role in the Great October Socialist Revolution 32
5. Creation of the Soviet Navy 36
6. Battles Against Foreign Interventionists and White Guards 41
CHAPTER II. **YEARS OF GREAT TRIALS** 46
1. The Days Before 46
2. Rebuff to the Enemy at Sea and on Land . . . 52
3. The Battles of Stalingrad and the Caucasus . . . 65
4. Heading for Victory 71
5. In the Far East 77
CHAPTER III. **SAFEGUARDING THE GAINS OF SOCIALISM** 85
1. In the Face of a New Threat 85
2. Peaceful Disposition and Readiness to Repulse Any Aggression 92
3. The Soviet Navy Grows to Emerge in the Open Seas 96
4. Soviet Navymen — Loyal Sons of the Nation . . . 104
5. A School of Political and Combat Training . . . 107
6. Military Cooperation with Fraternal Armies and Navies of Socialist Countries 118
CHAPTER IV. **PEACEFUL MISSION ON THE SEAS AND OCEANS** 121
1. For Peace in the Mediterranean 121
2. Friendly Visits to Foreign Countries 129
3. Soviet Research in the World Ocean 139
Conclusion 145
Bibliography 149
Name Index 153
Brief Service Records of Some Personalities in Name Index . . . 156

Introduction

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is not only the world's largest continental country, but also a great sea power. Its territory touches twelve seas of the Atlantic, Arctic and Pacific oceans, all of which have played a prominent role in the history of the Soviet Union. Today, with Soviet international ties steadily growing, these seas and oceans are gaining paramount importance for the Soviet economy.

Seas and oceans are the most economical means of communication, and Murmansk, Archangel, Astrakhan, Baku, Novorossiisk, Sevastopol, Odessa, Riga, Tallinn, Leningrad, and Vladivostok are just some of the many Soviet ports and large administrative and industrial centres. Needless to say, the natural resources of the seas and coastal areas are inexhaustible.

The seas and oceans surrounding the USSR are of special significance for the nation's defence because Soviet sea frontiers stretch for over 40,000 kilometers in the west, east, south, and north.

Soviet state interests demand that the nation's seaboards be reliably defended, and this responsibility has been entrusted to the Soviet Navy, which together with the Army has for more than sixty years guarded the achievements of the socialist revolution and the freedom and independence of the USSR.

The Soviet Navy is an integral part of the Armed Forces. Like the Red Army, it was born out of the struggle of the working people of Russia against the old world. The Soviet Navy was founded by the Communist Party and its leader V. I. Lenin, who developed the basic Marxist concepts on the role of navies in the era of imperialism and directly supervised naval construction programmes and operations in the interests of national defence.

The Soviet Navy from the very outset joined the struggle

against foreign interventionists and internal counter-revolutionaries who sought to crush the world's first republic of workers and peasants. Soviet sailors fought hand in hand with the young Red Army on all fronts surrounding the republic. They made daring raids behind enemy lines, landed commandoes, smashed counter-revolutionary forces on land and sea, and reliably defended the approaches by sea to Petrograd (now Leningrad), the bastion of the revolution. In those years, the revolutionary sailor was the symbol of staunchness, heroism and loyalty to the socialist revolution.

The first battle against world imperialism ended in victory. The Civil War in Soviet Russia (1918-1920) culminated in a crushing defeat of the foreign interventionists and internal counter-revolutionaries. Yet the forces of international reaction were not reconciled to the situation. As a result, two decades later, a new war of unprecedented scale and ferocity was imposed on the Soviet people by nazi Germany. For the Soviet Union, it was the Great Patriotic War for freedom and independence.

For four long years, the Soviet people fought for victory. In fierce battles, they annihilated the bulk of Hitler's forces and inflicted a crushing blow on the Japanese militarists. They not only defended their Motherland, but brought liberation from foreign slavery to many peoples of Europe and Asia.

Nazi Germany's treacherous attack on the USSR did not take the Soviet Navy by surprise. In their struggle with the enemy, Soviet seamen wrote many heroic pages in the history of the Great Patriotic War.

In close cooperation with the ground forces, the Soviet Navy, from the very first to the last days of the war, ensured the security of the sea approaches to the two-thousand-kilometer front; it struck at enemy communication lines, convoyed other sea vessels, and guarded troop landings. The nazis suffered serious setbacks in the Barents, Baltic and Black seas due to the actions of the Navy. During the war years, the Soviet Navy sank over 2,500 enemy ships and triumphantly carried its ensign to Constanza, Bratislava, Vienna, Berlin and the Bornholm Island in the west, and to Port Arthur in the east.

Since the end of World War II, the Soviet people have enjoyed 35 years of peace. During this period, the nation

has achieved outstanding successes on the road to communism. The USSR now has powerful productive forces, advanced science and culture, and increasingly stronger defences. The living standard has gone up visibly, as has the people's ideological and political unity.

The improvement of the nation's material and cultural standards continues to be the main goal of all social and economic development in the USSR. But this goal is incompatible with war, and like all nations of good will, the Soviet people are determined to thwart the threat of a new worldwide holocaust, and thus strive to consolidate peace and international security.

These aspirations of the Soviet people are embodied in the peaceful foreign policy of the USSR. The Communist Party and Soviet Government are fighting for the practical implementation in international relations of the principle of peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems, for international cooperation, and for the strengthening of world peace. The USSR does not regard its drive for good international relations as tactical. It has always sought good relations, and its devotion to peace is one of its fundamental foreign policy principles, secured in Article 28 of the Constitution of the USSR which reads: "The USSR steadfastly pursues a Leninist policy of peace and stands for the strengthening of the security of nations and broad international co-operation."

Thanks to the consistent and purposeful efforts of the USSR, of other socialist countries, and of progressives throughout the world, the seventies were marked by positive changes in the international situation. Detente has become reality.

However, the more reactionary imperialist forces, manufacturers of arms, and militarists are obstructing detente and trying to take the world back to the "cold war". On the false pretext of a "Soviet threat", they seek to procure ever greater sums of money for military needs, and constantly push for the development of more destructive weaponry. They try to suppress popular liberation movements and interfere in the internal affairs of other countries. The situation is compounded by the Chinese leaders, who act in unison with the imperialists in their military adventures. In this regard, China's open aggression against the Socialist Republic of Vietnam was in complete defiance of international law

and exposed before the whole world the aggressive nature of the hegemonic policy of the Chinese leaders.

The Soviet Union counters the designs of the enemies of peace with an active course towards further detente, towards curbing the arms race, and improving the international climate. Detente can be assured only if all actions "from positions of strength" are stopped and the principles of equal security and non-interference in the internal affairs of others are strictly observed. But as long as imperialist and other reactionary circles continue the arms race and their preparations for a new world war, the USSR is obliged to strengthen its defence potential and modernise its Armed Forces to meet the imperialist challenge.

The most dangerous example of military build-up is seen in the actions of NATO. A total of 1,000 thousand million dollars was spent in eight years (1971-1978) by members of this aggressive bloc on war preparations, and the next 1,000 thousand million is to be spent in only five years. Considerable sums are being allocated to maintaining, upgrading and developing its naval forces, which are considered as particularly important. Leading NATO countries have devoted a major part of their strategic nuclear arsenal to the naval sphere, and have turned the open seas into a vast deployment area for strategic nuclear missile carriers.

The United States holds a dominant position in NATO and, consequently, in Western Europe. At the same time, US ruling circles seek to strengthen their positions in the Far East, in Southeast Asia, and in the Middle East. American military bases and troops are stationed at many important points of the globe, and the US fleets, including atomic submarines armed with ballistic missiles, patrol the Pacific, North Atlantic, and Mediterranean. The US 7th Fleet polices Southeast Asia, and the 6th Fleet, the Mediterranean. The US imperialists are trying to gain a foothold in the Indian Ocean and adjacent areas as well. Recently, for example, they set up a naval base at Diego Garcia. By using its Navy as an instrument of aggressive imperialist policies, the United States has created a threat to world peace, in particular, to the security of socialist and developing states.

In face of this, the Soviet Navy has been entrusted with important tasks within the system of national defence. The Navy of today differs from that which operated during World War II. It has atomic submarines equipped with various types of rockets and homing torpedoes, and also anti-submarine, rocket, anti-mine, landing ships and other vessels with powerful modern weapons. Anti-submarine ships carrying helicopters and airplanes are a new class of surface ships. Soviet marines are now organised on the basis of advanced technology, and all coastal rocket and artillery forces are armed with powerful weapons.

Today, the Soviet Navy has emerged from coastal waters and inland seas to patrol the world oceans and has all the necessary means for combat on the high seas. Remote cruises have become common practice, since the open seas are the best place for the crews to improve their combat training and navigating skills, and for the officers to test their tactical abilities and the combat readiness of their ships. The Soviet Navy has close fraternal ties with the allied navies of the Warsaw Treaty nations, with whom they hold joint exercises and share experiences of combat training

That the Soviet ensign flutters in different regions of the world's oceans goes against the grain of some foreign politicians and apologists of imperialism. Bourgeois propagandists, including NATO leaders, fabricate all kinds of stories about the Soviet Navy. For instance, in an interview published in October 1976 in the *Europa* magazine, General Steinhoff, former member of the NATO Military Committee, alleged that the USSR was using its strength as an instrument of hegemony and, with the help of its Navy, could pursue an expansionist imperialist policy on the seas of the "free world". US Admiral A. Kidd, Supreme Commander of NATO forces in the Atlantic, sees the rapidly growing Soviet merchant marine as a strategic Soviet threat on all seas and oceans. Admiral Kidd's fabrication was used to justify arguments for increasing NATO's fighting potential.

The purpose for the use of the term "Soviet threat" is to sow anxiety among nations, to confound the efforts of the forces of peace, and to spur forward the military preparations of imperialist powers.

Books about the Soviet Army and Navy appear from time to time in the United States and other NATO countries. In these publications, bourgeois historians and military theorists produce biased interpretations of Soviet warcraft during World War II. According to Robert W. Herrick, an American historian, "the Soviet Navy proved unable to adapt its naval strategy to the combination of strategic defence and

tactical offense that the circumstances required".[1] In an introduction to Herrick's book, Admiral Arleigh Burke, US Navy Reserve, wrote: "The experiences of the Soviet Navy in combat cannot be a matter of pride to the present generation of naval personnel."[2] However, most of the assessments of the Soviet Navy made by Burke, Herrick and other bourgeois military historians are groundless and are aimed at deprecating its heroic history.

In the past, too, nations with long-standing naval traditions were ill-disposed towards the Russian Navy. The expansionist policies of many Western powers have long been aimed at preventing Russian naval ships from having access to the open sea. This policy, of course, lives on today, though the Soviet Navy is not only an important instrument in ensuring the state interests of the USSR and the security of the socialist community, but also an effective deterrent for the aggressive policies of the imperialists and their accomplices, and its presence on the high seas serves the cause of world peace.

After World War II, the Navy was largely involved in peaceful missions aimed at rendering humanitarian aid to numerous nations that had suffered from natural calamities and imperialist aggression. This also involves calls and friendly visits to foreign ports. These visits promote the consolidation of friendly relations and mutual understanding among nations, and Soviet sailors are always welcomed by people the world over.

This book is a concise and popular account of the most important events in the history of the Russian Navy, and also of the revolutionary traditions of Russian seamen, and their role in the Great October Socialist Revolution and the Civil War of 1918-1920. The authors also describe the Soviet Navy and its actions during and after World War II, and the life of naval personnel today.

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[1] Robert W. Herrick, *Soviet Naval Strategy. Fifty Years of Theory and Practice*, Annapolis, 1978, p. 47.

[2] Robert W. Herrick, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

CHAPTER I

PAGES OF REVOLUTIONARY GLORY

1. The Creation of the Russian Navy and Its Role in Russian History

The beginnings of the Russian Navy date to the remote past and its history abounds with important events.

In the early centuries of the new era, the ancestors of the eastern Slavs had already sailed far and wide in the Black, Mediterranean, Caspian and Baltic seas. This tradition was continued by their descendants, the Russians, who in the 9th century set up the Grand Duchy of Kiev, which used sea routes to maintain cultural and economic ties with foreign countries. Time and again, the walls of Constantinople, the capital of Byzantium, saw Russian flotillas, and in those days the peoples of Europe and Asia called the Black Sea, the Russian Sea.

The seafarers of ancient Russia sailed not only in the south. In the north, the rivers Velikaya and Neva and lakes Ladoga and Onega belonged to Veliky Novgorod, one of the oldest of Russian towns. Local merchants maintained lively trade with the tribes inhabiting the Baltic and White Sea coasts, and had commercial relations with Sweden, Denmark, and other countries. Coastal dwellers fished in the waters of the Arctic, and went on long expeditions to Novaya Zemlya and in the Kara Sea. It was not by chance, then, that the Arctic Ocean, at that time called the "Very Cold Sea", was looked upon as a Russian domain. Already by the early 13th century, the people of Novgorod broke through polar ice sheets to reach Grumant (now Spitzbergen).

The voyages and naval expeditions of the Grand Duchy of

Kiev received high appraisal not only in Russian pre-revolutionary and Soviet historical studies. In characterising the Russian Navy of that time, Frederick T. Jane, an English historian, wrote: "The Russian Navy, though generally regarded as a comparatively modern institution, founded by Peter the Great, can, as a matter of fact, lay greater claim to antiquity than the British fleet. A century before Alfred built the first English warships, Russians had fought in desperate seafights, and a thousand years ago the foremost sailors of the time were Russians." [1]

In the 13th century, the Grand Duchy of Kiev fell apart as a result of internecine wars and the Mongol-Tatar invasion, and for some time the Russians were prevented from sailing the Black Sea, the Sea of Azov and the Caspian. The power and influence of Veliky Novgorod also waned considerably, and the Swedes took advantage of the situation to capture almost all of the Baltic Sea coast, almost bringing Russia's sea trade to a halt.

At the end of the 14th century, Russia freed herself from the Mongol-Tatar yoke, and, in the second half of the 15th century, when Moscow became the economic and political centre of the new Russian state, the struggle began for the return of its coastal provinces and outlets to the sea.

Although this struggle took many centuries, in the meantime Russian sailors continued to ply the White Sea and the Arctic. They moved further north and east to explore the shores of Siberia from Taimyr Peninsula to Chukotka, and eventually reached the Pacific, obtaining information on Sakhalin and Shantar Islands. The need for an outlet to the Baltic and Black seas became especially urgent in the late 17th and early 18th centuries. At that time, Russia was already a huge state with rapidly growing serf farming, industry, and domestic trade. Commercial exchanges with Western Europe and the Orient were also on the upgrade. Yet, despite some progress in economic development, Russia was still behind the advanced nations. This was largely due to the fact that for a long time she was deprived of convenient sea routes for communications and trade with Europe: the sole outlet was the White Sea which was ice-bound most of the year, and in any case the distance from Archangel, the White Sea port, to Western Europe was too great.

[1] F. T. Jane, *The Imperial Russian Navy. Its Past, Present and Future*, London, 1899, p. 22.

Russia's economic backwardness and lack of outlets to the Black and Baltic seas created a serious threat to her defence and national independence. The Crimean Tatars and Turks made raids in the south, and the Swedes in the northwest, and this situation was naturally unacceptable for the Russian state. Referring to this period in Russian history, Marx wrote: "No great nation has ever existed, or been able to exist, in such an inland position as that of the original empire of Peter the Great;... none has ever submitted thus to see its coasts and the mouths of its rivers torn away from it; Russia could no more leave the mouth of the Neva, the natural outlet for the produce of Northern Russia, in the hands of the Swedes, than the mouths of the Don, Dnieper, and Bug, and the Straits of Kerch, in the hands of nomadic and plundering Tatars." [1]

Hence, Russia's major task was to obtain a free outlet to the Black and Baltic seas, since this would largely help develop her productive forces and consolidate her economic, political and military positions.

At the end of the 17th century, Russia resumed her struggle to secure outlets to the sea. In 1695, Peter the Great launched his first campaign against Azov, then a Turkish fortress, which he intended to capture in order to open the way for Russian merchant ships, first to the Sea of Azov and then to the Black Sea. The Russian Army besieged the fortress from land, but failed to take it, chiefly because it lacked naval support. At the same time, the beleaguered Turks freely received reinforcements and supplies from the sea, and Turkish warships backed them with guns and troop landings.

Peter realised that without a sufficiently strong navy it would be impossible to gain a foothold on the coast. He therefore issued an edict to build a fleet in the upper reaches of the Don, which was done during the winter of 1695-1696.

In the spring of 1696, Peter launched his second campaign against the fortress of Azov. The Turkish garrison, surrounded from land and sea, could not stand the siege and capitulated. This was an important victory, making it possible for the Russians once again to reach the shores of the Sea of Azov. Yet, the outlet to the Black Sea remained

[1] Karl Marx, *Secret Diplomatic History of the Eighteenth Century*, London, 1899, p. 87.

closed because the Straits of Kerch was still in Turkish hands.

After capturing Azov, the Russians continued to build their navy. True, in 1711, after the unsuccessful outcome of the war with Turkey, they were forced to scrap the Azov Fleet. But the experience helped them to subsequently build the Baltic Fleet. This was done during the Northern War of 1700-1721 against Sweden which Russia waged for the recapture of the Baltic coast. The war was very severe because at that time Sweden was one of the most powerful states in Europe and had a large regular army and strong navy.

Peter the Great realised the importance of naval forces in the war against Sweden, and from the very outset began to build the Russian Baltic Fleet, the shipyards of which were situated on the rivers Svir, Volkhov and Syas. In 1702-1703, Russian troops backed by warships liberated both banks of the Neva River flowing into the Gulf of Finland. The foundations of St. Petersburg were laid in its estuary in 1703. Later St. Petersburg became an important naval base and the capital of the Russian Empire.

In 1705, the Swedish Navy tried to recapture the Neva estuary. The attack was launched from the sea and from Vyborg in the Karelian Isthmus. But the young Baltic Fleet in cooperation with coastal batteries and land forces foiled these attempts. The decisive event in the war was the Battle of Poltava (June 1709). Although the bulk of the Swedish Army was routed there, the Battle of Poltava did not bring the war to an end, and hostilities continued in the Baltic, where the Swedish Navy was still superior.

In those days, Russia made great efforts to develop her Baltic Fleet. First she quickly built a fleet of galleys which could readily operate in coastal waters jointly with land forces. Then, beginning from 1709, she started commissioning battleships, chiefly for protecting galleys and defending the coast from attacks by a superior enemy fleet.

The galley fleet helped Russian land forces capture the coastline of the Gulf of Finland. In 1714, a flotilla under Peter the Great inflicted a severe blow at Gangut Peninsula to a Swedish fleet which tried to stop Russian reinforcements and supplies from reaching the garrison in Abo, Finland. A fierce battle ensued in which all the Swedish ships were captured, and Nic Ehrenskjold, the commanding admiral,

was taken prisoner. The Russians subsequently captured the whole of Finland, pushing back the battlefront to the very borders of Sweden. The Russian Army and Navy staged repeated troop landings in Sweden, and in 1720 approached Stockholm. In the summer of 1720, the Swedish Navy suffered a new defeat at Grengham and Sweden was on the verge of complete collapse. In 1721 its government finally agreed to sign the Treaty of Nystadt. The Swedes returned to Russia her rightful possessions in the Gulf of Finland, and also Estland and Livland (now the Estonian and Latvian Soviet Socialist Republics) and the Karelian Isthmus including Vyborg. Thus, after almost four centuries, the Russians again had reached the Baltic.

By the end of the Northern War, Russia became one of the strongest world powers, and this created favourable conditions for continuing a successful struggle for the return of Russian lands on the northern shore of the Black Sea in order to obtain an outlet to the more southerly seas.

Turkey had captured the Russian lands on the Azov and Black Sea coasts in the 15th century, and ever since had pursued a policy of expansion. It constantly threatened Russia's southern provinces, and sought to occupy the Ukraine and other regions.

But Russia's worst foe in the south were the Crimean Tatars, who were subject to and supported by Turkey. They made raids on the outlying regions in the south of Russia, looted and destroyed towns and villages, and captured and sold the inhabitants into slavery. According to even very modest estimates, they drove away as many as 200,000 Russian captives in the first half of the 17th century alone.

In her struggle, Turkey was backed by Britain, France and other West European countries, who feared the prospect of a strong Russia. In seeking to stop Russia from getting an outlet to the Mediterranean, they not only encouraged the Turks to go to war with Russia, but gave them economic and military assistance.

Russia's age-old struggle for an outlet to the Black Sea achieved success in the second half of the 18th century after the two wars against Turkey (1768-1774 and 1787-1791) in which the Russian Navy played a noteworthy role. In the Black and Mediterranean seas, Russian seamen fought bravely and leaving aside the basically expansionist nature of tsarist foreign policy, the wars against Turkey ensured Russia's

security and helped many peoples overthrow the Turkish yoke.

The first of these wars was started in September 1768, when Turkey, having secured the support of France and Austria, declared war against Russia. So as to make the Turks withdraw part of their forces from the main theatre of operations in Moldavia and the Balkans, the Russian government ordered the Navy to deal the enemy a blow from the rear, in the Mediterranean, making use of the national liberation movement of the Balkan Peninsula. Five squadrons numbering over 50 battleships of different classes were sent there, and subsequent naval operations made things easier for the Russian armies in Moldavia and the Balkans.

On June 26, 1770, a Russian squadron under Admiral G. A. Spiridov annihilated a Turkish fleet in the Battle of Chesma. The Turks lost fifteen battleships, six frigates and about 40 small vessels. They also lost approximately 10,000 men, while Russian losses were only eleven. During subsequent operations, the squadron liberated the inhabitants of twenty islands and several maritime towns, some of them on the Syrian coast. Admiral Spiridov's actions in the Mediterranean helped step up the national liberation movement in the Balkans, Syria and Egypt, and gave rise to pro-Russian sentiments in the Mediterranean.

Having suffered defeats both on land and sea, Turkey was forced to capitulate. The Kutchuk-Kainardji Peace Treaty of 1774 restored Russian rights on Azov. Russia also received the fortress of Kerch,Yenikale, and part of the Black Sea coast between the Bug and Dniester rivers, including the fortress of Kinburn. The Black Sea and the straits were now open to the Russian merchant marine and Turkey acknowledged the independence of the Crimea, which was subsequently annexed by Russia in 1783. New towns and the ports of Kherson and Sevastopol were founded on the Black Sea, and the construction of a fleet began. In 1783, Sevastopol became the main base of the Russian Black Sea Fleet.

The annexation of the Crimea and the construction of a fleet in the Black Sea led to a new crisis in Russo-Turkish relations. Incited by Britain, the Porte in 1787 again started military operations against Russia. In the war that followed, the Russian Army and Navy inflicted on the Turks several serious defeats. In a battle off Fidonisi Island (1788), a Russian squadron led by Admiral F. F. Ushakov attacked a numerically superior Turkish fleet. In this action, Ushakov ignored normal line tactics and battle formation, and concentrated his forces on the flagship and some other vessels of the Turkish vanguard. As a result, the enemy suffered heavy losses and was compelled to retreat *en masse*. In his report, Ushakov wrote: "I myself was surprised at the adroitness and bravery of my men. Their shots were rare and so skilful that it seemed each of them was simply practicing how to hit the target without missing a shot."

The following year, the Russian Black Sea Fleet under Admiral Ushakov defeated the Turks off the Straits of Kerch and prevented them from landing in the Crimea. In the summer of 1791, the Russians inflicted another serious defeat on the Turkish Navy at Cape Kaliakria, and after that the Turks could no longer put up any serious resistance. It may be noted here that Ushakov's victories were due to his new sailing fleet tactics and the audacious and resolute actions of his officers and men.

The war ended in Turkey's defeat. The Treaty of Jassy (December 1791) gave Russia the northern Black Sea coast between the Dniester and Kuban rivers and the right to station naval vessels in the Black Sea and conduct trade via the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. Thus, Russia's age-old struggle for an outlet to the Black Sea culminated in a victory which had tremendous significance in strengthening her economic, political and military positions.

Subsequent naval operations in the Mediterranean during Napoleon's rule in France were also outstanding events in the history of the Russian Navy. The late 18th and early 19th centuries were marked by a complex and rapidly changing international situation, in which Russia and Turkey, after a long period of hostility, became allies and, together with Britain and Austria, took part in military operations against Napoleon. Russian Army units under Field Marshal Alexander Suvorov staunchly fought against the French in Switzerland and Northern Italy; at the same time, a united squadron of Russian and Turkish warships under Admiral Ushakov freed the Ionian Islands from French occupation. On February 20, 1799, after a three-month siege, a Russian squadron led by Ushakov captured the Island of Corfu, one of the strongest French naval fortresses in the Mediterranean, the operation being backed by Turkish vessels. Corfu

was considered impregnable, and its capture was a remarkable feat.

After liberating Corfu, the Russian squadron together with Suvorov's troops took part in ousting the French from Italy. The most important events were liberation of Naples and the Russian seamen's march into Rome.

In late September 1800, the bulk of Ushakov's squadron returned to Sevastopol. A few ships remained in the Mediterranean to protect the Ionian Islands and support the national liberation movement in the region. But the situation in Europe was getting worse. Napoleon's expansionist policies threatened the independence of many European nations, as well as Russian interests in the Balkans and the Mediterranean. Napoleon occupied Venice and Dalmatia, and the danger of French penetration into the Balkans and occupation of the Ionian Islands, a Russian naval base at that time, began to be felt.

In 1805, the Russian government sent a naval squadron to the area from Kronstadt in order to counter the French offensive in the Mediterranean and the Balkans. The commanding officer was Admiral D. N. Senyavin, Ushakov's talented pupil and companion-in-arms. Senyavin operated successfully in the Adriatic till the end of 1806, and his actions were largely instrumental in improving the strategic situation in the Mediterranean and preventing Napoleon from capturing the Ionian Islands and expanding his aggressive campaign into the Balkans.

However, by the end of 1806 the military and political situation in Europe sharply changed. The Porte, Russia's recent ally, sided with France, and Senyavin's squadron started actions against the Turkish fleet, which, however, tried to evade a decisive encounter. The Russians pursued the Turks, and in summer of 1807 routed them, first off the Dardanelles and then at Lemnos Island.

Active Russian operations in the Mediterranean foiled Napoleon's expansionist plans, which were directed against the peoples of the Balkans and threatened Russia's security. A major political outcome of the Mediterranean campaign was the further consolidation of friendship between the Russian and Balkan peoples. Russian successes on land and sea helped both to liberate Italy from French occupation and to intensify the national liberation struggle in the Balkans.

In 1821, the Greeks rose against the age-old Turkish

domination. The Porte could not suppress the uprising with her own forces and called Mehmet Ali, the ruler of Egypt, to her aid. From 1824 to the summer of 1827, united Turco-Egyptian land and sea forces waged a destructive war in Greece. In 1827, the Russian fleet was again active in the Mediterranean, this time with the noble aim of assisting the Greek liberation struggle.

In June 1827, Russia, Britain and France signed the Treaty of London. The three powers agreed to put pressure on Turkey to cease her destructive war against Greece and agreed to send Russian, British and French squadrons to the Mediterranean if the Porte failed to comply.[1]

In late September 1827, a Russian squadron under Rear-Admiral L. P. Geiden arrived off the Greek shores and joined the British and French fleets. At that time, Greece was in a very serious plight: Turkish and Egyptian forces had occupied almost all of her territory and behaved brutally towards the inhabitants. Despite this situation, the British and French squadrons failed to make any substantial moves against the Turks.

The attitude of the Russian seamen in the Mediterranean was quite the opposite. Being unaware of the expansionist policies of the tsarist government in the Middle East, they were eager to help the Greeks as quickly as possible. Many of the officers and men were ideologically close to the Decembrists[2] and, together with all Russian progressives, took to heart the defeat of the revolutionary-democratic movement in their own country. At a time when Russia was in the throes of brutal reaction, many of the Russian seamen regarded the expedition in defence of the Greek uprising as a fortunate chance for alleviating the plight of the Greek people. One of the officers wrote: "Everyone of us wants to help the Greeks, and what we mostly dream of is the Mediterranean. From the times of Admiral Senyavin's expedition, all the young navymen have constantly been looking forward to this fine campaign."[3] The Russian seamen's dedication

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[1] Each signatory sought to strengthen its own positions in the East Mediterranean without letting its partners become stronger.

[2] The Decembrists were Russian revolutionary noblemen, mostly officers, who in December 1825 mutinied against tsarist autocracy and serfdom.

[3] *Istoriya russkoi armii i flota* (A History of the Russian Army and Navy), Vol. 9, Moscow, 1913, p. 184 (in Russian).

grew even stronger when they reached Greece and saw with their own eyes the terrible sufferings of the people.

In early October 1827, the allied squadron blocked the united Turco-Egyptian fleet in the Bay of Navarino. This was done on Russia's insistence in order to compel the Turks to stop fighting and persecuting the Greeks. After a few days of continued Turkish provocations, Navarino became the scene of a fierce battle which ended in a crushing defeat of the Turco-Egyptian fleet. The heroic actions of the Russian squadron had a decisive effect on the outcome of the battle. The bulk of the Turkish fleet was annihilated, and this considerably weakened the Porte's naval might and consequently was a significant factor in the successful conclusion of the Greek war for independence.

After the Battle of Navarino, the military and political situation in the Balkans and the Middle East became even more complicated, and the Russian squadron stayed in the Mediterranean. In December 1827, the Porte, incited by Britain, France, Austria and other countries, unilaterally denounced all its previous treaties with Russia and called on all Muslims to start a "holy war" against her. Persecutions of Russians residing in Turkey began.[1]

In April 1828, Russo-Turkish hostilities were resumed. The main theatres were in the Balkans and the Caucasus. The Russian Black Sea Fleet and the Danube Galley Flotilla fought in the Black Sea, and the Russian Mediterranean squadron under Admiral Geiden blocked the Dardanelles, cut Turkish sea communications between Constantinople and the Aegean Sea, and took direct part in actions near the Ionian Islands to prevent the Turks from sending reinforcements and supplies to their troops fighting against the Greeks. Russian successes on land and sea helped to intensify the liberation struggle against the Ottoman yoke.

Suffering defeats both on land and sea, the Porte began peace talks. In September 1829, a Russo-Turkish peace treaty was signed in Adrianople. Under the treaty, Moldavia and Wallachia retained their autonomy; Serbia became a self-governing territory, albeit still as a Turkish vassal; and Greece was proclaimed fully independent, though some of her islands and territories remained under the Turks.

[1] *Boyevaya letopis russkogo flota* (Chronicles of the Russian Navy), Moscow, 1948, p. 200 (in Russian).

It is noteworthy that British and French representatives did all they could to compel Russian diplomats not to resolve the Greek question at Adrianople. In a special message to General Dibich, the British and French ambassadors demanded that the clause stipulating the independence of Greece be excluded from the text of the treaty; however, the Russians rejected the demand outright.

For the Greeks and other Balkan nations, the Treaty of Adrianople became a major landmark on the road to national independence.

In the first half of the 19th century, the Russian sailing fleet had reached its peak and was regarded as one of the strongest in the world. Nevertheless, Russia started building steam-driven warships already in the 1820s. Russia was an economically backward country, and the modernisation of her Navy went at a slower pace than that of the advanced industrial states. Moreover, the tsarist government at that time underestimated the significance of the Navy and this naturally had an adverse effect on naval construction.

The negative consequences of Russia's economic and technological backwardness and of her underestimation of the role of the Navy became especially apparent during the Crimean War of 1853-1856. By that time, Turkey was weakened as a result of national liberation movement, and had become fully dependent on Britain and France both economically and politically. The British and French took advantage of this to reduce Turkey to the equivalent of a colony and were planning to capture the Straits. At the same time, the British wanted to dislodge Russia from the Black Sea; to capture the Caucasus, the Crimea and some other Russian territories, and to destroy the Russian Black Sea Fleet.

In order to weaken both Russia and Turkey, the British and French governments exploited the claims of Turkey on Russian territory. In provoking Turkey to go to war with Russia, they promised her economic and military assistance. Having secured British and French support, the Porte in September 1853 declared war on Russia.

On November 18, 1853, a Russian squadron under Admiral P. S. Nakhimov routed the bulk of the Turkish Navy at Sinop. The battle lasted for four hours, and the Turks lost 15 of their 16 warships and auxiliary vessels; only one ship managed to escape. The Russians also destroyed most of the enemy's coastal batteries. The Turks lost more

than 3,000 men, and Osman Pasha, the commander of the squadron, was taken prisoner. Russian losses were 37.

The crushing defeat of the Turks at Sinop drastically changed the strategic situation in Russia's favour. Fearing that Russian victories would lead to increased Russian influence in the Middle East, Britain and France joined the war. Large British and French naval forces were sent to the Baltic, the North, and the Pacific coasts of Russia. But most of the allied strength was concentrated in the Black Sea, including a united fleet of steam-driven warships. Naturally, the Russian Black Sea Fleet with its obsolete sailing vessels could not oppose the enemy; nor could it prevent the British and French from landing troops in the Crimea. The Russian Navy had to defend its base in Sevastopol, and all the naval personnel and artillery were removed from the ships to fight the superior British, French, and Turkish land forces which had laid siege to the town.

For eleven months, the heroic defenders led by Admirals V. A. Kornilov and P. S. Nakhimov repelled enemy onslaughts under constant artillery fire. The defence of Sevastopol was the central event of the war. The Russians paralysed and mauled the many-thousand strong enemy force and thereby prevented the invasion of southern Russia.

The Anglo-French land and sea forces were also repelled in the Gulf of Finland, in the White Sea and off Petropavlovsk-Kamchatsky. But despite the heroism of Russian soldiers and sailors, tsarist Russia suffered a serious defeat: her Black Sea Fleet was annihilated, and Sevastopol, its base, demolished. In March 1856, Russia signed the Treaty of Paris, under which she had to cede the estuary of the Danube and part of southern Moldavia and to relinquish her protectorate over the Danube Principalities. The most severe clause, however, was that Russia could no longer station a fleet in the Black Sea. She regained the right to do so only fifteen years later, in 1871.

The Crimean War had a major impact on the socio-political situation in Russia and strongly aggravated the crisis of the system of feudal serfdom. In 1861, the rapid growth of Russian capitalism and the mounting revolutionary movement compelled the tsarist government to abolish serfdom and introduce a number of bourgeois reforms, which also covered the military field.

Military reforms were to strengthen the Russian Army

and Navy as bulwarks of the autocratic system of government. Recruiting was replaced by universal military service which opened the way for the formation of a bourgeois-type mass army. The armed forces were equipped with better weaponry, and the Admiralty began building iron-clad ships. However, it was only by the beginning of the 1900s that Russia had become the world's third naval power: by 1896, the British had 355, the French 204, and the Russians 107 warships. At the same time, the Russians had few ships in the Pacific, where the Japanese and British outnumbered them twice over.

Despite that, by the end of the 19th century Russia had achieved considerable successes in naval construction. Her naval architects had designed and built new classes of warships, e. g., *Pyotr Veliky*, one of the strongest battleships of the time.

Russia was ahead of other powers in the construction of heavy cruisers, destroyers and submarines. Yet, by the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, the tsarist government still lagged in naval construction and, during the war, had to use newly commissioned and as yet untried ships.

The Russo-Japanese War was an imperialistic war. It was started by Japan which was actively supported by Britain and the United States. Japan, which like tsarist Russia, sought to capture new territories in the Far East, started her aggression without declaring war. On the night of January 27, 1904, the Japanese attacked the Russian squadron in Port Arthur and put three first-class Russian warships out of action. The Russian fleet could not prevent the enemy from landing in Manchuria; nor could it stop Japanese military supplies from reaching the scene of confrontation. The Japanese Navy blockaded Port Arthur, which shortly after was besieged from land. All attempts by Russian naval vessels to leave Port Arthur and break through to Vladivostok failed.

The heroic defence of Port Arthur lasted eight months, during which the Japanese lost about 112,000 men. Russian losses were 27,000. In the beginning of 1905, General Stessel, the commandant of Port Arthur, treacherously surrendered the fortress to the enemy. After the fall of Port Arthur, the Japanese gained supremacy on sea, and with it the possibility to freely transfer troops and supplies to Manchuria.

In October 1904, the 2nd Pacific Squadron was sent from the Baltic to support Russian naval forces in the Far East. In May 1905, the squadron reached the Island of Tsushima and, in spite of being weaker than the Japanese fleet patrolling the area, engaged it in battle. The Russian seamen, though tired after the long voyage, fought courageously. Their commanders, however, proved ineffective in the face of an enemy with superior numbers, and, as a result, the squadron was defeated. Russia's naval setbacks largely predetermined her defeat in the war, which showed the enormous significance of naval forces in modern warfare. If the Russian Navy had gained superiority over the Japanese, the latter would have been unable to start active land operations in Manchuria.

In the sea battles with the Japanese, Russian sailors continued the fighting traditions of their forefathers. In the beginning of the war, the cruiser *Varyag* and the gun-boat *Koreyets* were blocked by a Japanese squadron in the neutral Korean port of Inchon. Captain lst Rank V. F. Rudnev, commander of the *Varyag*, tried to break through to Port Arthur. The enemy squadron had six cruisers and eight destroyers; the *Varyag* sunk one destroyer and seriously damaged two cruisers, but was itself severely damaged so that it could hardly continue fighting and had to return to the Inchon roadstead. After that, the Russians blew up the *Koreyets* and scuttled the *Varyag*, ensigns flying.

The unforgettable exploit of the destroyer *Steregushchy* has gone down forever in the history of the Russian Navy. On February 26, 1904, on its way home from a reconnaissance mission, it engaged four Japanese destroyers. When only six men, four of them seriously wounded, remained alive, the Japanese decided to take them in tow. Preferring death to surrender, two Russian sailors opened the flood valves in the stokehold. Fearing that the Japanese might come aboard and close the valves, they then sealed the stokehold hatches from inside and scuttled the ship.

After the war, naval reconstruction became one of Russia's major problems. New warships were built, taking into account the experience of the war and the latest trends in naval development.

By the beginning of and during World War I, the Russian Navy commissioned many new warships of various classes. In the Black and Baltic seas, it defended the coastlines, supported the flanks of ground forces, cut enemy communications, and did convoy duty.

During World War I, Russian seamen again repeatedly showed their high combat abilities. Russian submarines were highly effective in cutting enemy communication lines in the Bosphorus and Zonguldak. On June 18, 1915, the German cruiser *Breslau* exploded on a mine barrage placed by the submarine mine layer *Krab*. The *Breslau* was severely damaged and put out of action for seven months.

In the Baltic, too, Russian sailors fought valiantly. On August 4, 1915, the destroyer *Novik* engaged two German destroyers in the Gulf of Riga, and sunk one and damaged the other. During the war, Russian miners also inflicted tangible losses on the enemy. In October 1916, in just two days seven German destroyers ran into Russian mines in the Gulf of Finland, and sank. In the Battle of Moonsund, which lasted from September 29 to October 7, 1917, the Bolshevik-led Baltic Fleet inflicted considerable losses on the German Navy and prevented it from approaching revolutionary Petrograd.

Russian victories over foreign navies were due not only to the courage and staunchness of Russian sailors, but also to the high level of Russian ship-building and naval strategy. Such outstanding Russian naval commanders as Peter the Great, G. A. Spiridov, F. F. Ushakov, D. N. Senyavin, M. P. Lazarev and P. S. Nakhimov did much for developing sailing fleet tactics. Later, Russian Admiral G. I. Butakov was the first military theorist to write a treatise on steamer fleet tactics, subsequently developed by S. O. Makarov, outstanding Russian admiral and scientist.

The Russian Navy produced innovator-scientists who played a major role in building ships and developing different types of naval weapons. The designs of many Russian submarines and surface ships gained world fame.

Russian ship-builders were the first to invent the hovercraft and several types of mines, torpedoes and artillery weapons. In 1865, I. F. Alexandrovsky, a prominent submarine designer, invented the world's first torpedo. The Russian Navy is rightfully called the cradle of wireless telegraphy. A. S. Popov, who in 1895 invented the radio, devoted many years to training naval officers and introducing wireless communication to the Navy; in 1899 he also discovered radar.

2. The Navy's Role in Geographic Discoveries and Exploration of Seas and Oceans

The Russian Navy is also notable for its history of daring round-the-world voyages and its many successful exploratory and scientific expeditions. The Navy produced a wide range of scientists, bold travellers and explorers, who considerably contributed to science by their geographic discoveries and marine investigations.

Russia's struggle for regaining her outlets to the Baltic and Black seas was accompanied by the ongoing advance to the Pacific. Ignoring all dangers, groups of brave explorers risked their lives in remote expeditions in severe Arctic seas. In 1648, Semyon Dezhnev discovered the strait which separates Asia from America, and on board a small ship undertook a daring expedition from the Arctic into the Pacific.

This outstanding discovery initiated Russian explorations of the Pacific seaboard, and further eastward advances led to the discovery of Alaska. In the 17th century, the vast areas of Eastern Siberia, the Okhotsk Sea coast, Kamchatka, Alaska, the Aleutians, Sakhalin, and many other Pacific islands were incorporated as part of Russia. In the middle of the 18th century, Russian industrialists headed by G. I. Shelikhov began to develop Western America and the Aleutians: they set up various companies, which in 1799 were united in a single Russian-American Company under the patronage of the Russian government.

Extended voyages undertaken in the first half of the 19th century marked another important stage in Russian sea expeditions. From 1803 to 1855, Russian seamen made forty-one voyages from Kronstadt to the Far East and Alaska, most of them round the world. The expeditions made use of warships and vessels belonging to the Russian-American Company, in which most of the executives were Russian naval officers.

Round-the-world and remote voyages were marked by outstanding geographic discoveries by V. M. Golovnin, F. P. Litke, M. P. Lazarev, F. F. Bellinsgausen, F. P. Wrangel, O. Y. Kotsebu, G. I. Nevelskoy, Y. F. Lisyansky, S. O. Makarov, and others, all outstanding seafarers and naval officers. The most important one was made in January 1820, when Bellinsgausen and Lazarev discovered

the Antarctic. Another highly significant discovery was made in 1849, when Nevelskoy confirmed the navigability of the estuary of the Amur. Many discoveries were made in the Pacific tropics, and in the Marshall and Caroline Islands. Such voyages were largely helpful in completing the map of the Pacific.

In 1824-1826, I. F. Krusenstern compiled the first detailed and accurate Pacific atlas, which he called *An Atlas of the South Sea* and which received considerable acclaim both at home and abroad. In those days, it was considered the best Pacific guide, and was used by navigators all over the world.[1]

In addition to geographic, cartographic, hydrographic and other studies, Russian navigators also gave increasing attention to ethnographic research. Their ethnographic notes and reviews were highly valuable and authentic, and were marked by feelings of friendship and respect for other nations.

In the second half of the 19th and early 20th centuries, Russian naval officers and scientists undertook expeditions more and more frequently. In 1871-1883, Russian seamen explored the Pacific in the area of New Guinea, and N. N. Miklukho-Maklai, world-known Russian anthropologist, ethnographer and oceanographer, was an active participant in these explorations. He and other Russian scientists performed ethnographic studies and described and mapped this island, which was previously unfamiliar to Europeans.

The end of the 19th century was marked by highly fruitful explorations of the world's seas and oceans by Admiral Makarov. In 1885, he published his first work called *Water Flows Between the Black and Mediterranean Seas*. The book made him famous as an outstanding oceanographer. In 1886-1889, he conducted his most significant investigations during a round-the-world expedition on board the corvette *Vityaz*. He observed currents, water temperatures and depths, and published the results in a two-volume work entitled *Corvette Vityaz* and *The Pacific Ocean*. The book received wide recognition both in Russia and many other countries.

Makarov suggested building a powerful ice-breaker for

[1] Presently, Soviet cartographers are working on a new atlas of the world's oceans. The first volume entitled *The Pacific Ocean* appeared in 1977.

sailing on the Northern Sea Route and reaching the North Pole. He designed the *Yermak*, the world's first ice-breaker, which was built in 1898. The vessel passed running trials in the ice-flows of the Gulf of Finland, managing to reach Spitzbergen, and for many years was one of the world's best ships of its kind.

In the early 20th century, the Russians organised several bold expeditions by small vessels for studying the Arctic and exploring the Northern Sea Route. In 1900, the *Zarya* under the command of E. V. Toll tried to sail across the Arctic into the Pacific. The expedition was unsuccessful due to the death of Toll and several of his men in 1902. V.A. Rusanov also made significant contributions to the exploration of the Arctic. In 1909-1913, he went on several voyages to the Barents and Kara seas, but in 1913 his last eastbound expedition along the Northern Sea Route was lost near Novaya Zemlya. In 1912, Georgy Sedov went on a privately-sponsored Arctic expedition on board the sailer-steamer *St. Foka*. But all attempts to reach the North Pole failed. Sedov subsequently tried to do this in a dog sleigh, but finally died of scurvy several kilometers from Rudolf Island. Despite the fact that all these expeditions ended tragically, they were highly significant for the exploration of the Arctic.

After Russia's defeat in the war with Japan, the government was compelled to give more attention to examining the navigation conditions along the Northern Sea Route, the shortest in Russian territorial waters between the northwesternmost and northeasternmost points of the country. In 1910-1915, a special naval expedition on the ice-breakers *Taimyr* and *Vaigach* performed hydrographic research in the Arctic, and in 1913 discovered Severnaya Zemlya Island. In July 1914, the two ships sailed from Vladivostok in an attempt to reach the Atlantic via the Arctic. In the summer of 1915, they finally broke through into clear water and reached Archangel. This was the first east-west voyage via the Northern Sea Route.

World War I put a stop to further exploration of the Arctic, and investigations were resumed only after the Great October Socialist Revolution. Soviet research in the Arctic has since transformed the Northern Sea Route into an important means of communication.

3. Revolutionary Traditions of Russian Seamen

Like the Army, the tsarist Navy was used by the ruling classes for securing their dominant positions inside the country and attaining their political objectives abroad. At the same time, however, the Navy was an instrument against foreign aggression.

All the commanding posts in the Navy were held by the gentry, a privileged class in semi-feudal Russia. As a rule, all the admirals were aristocrats and the officers, noblemen. Naval academies admitted only noblemen's children. After the introduction of steam vessels, the tsarist government was compelled to let technical experts from among non-gentry intellectuals serve as naval officers, but the other officers of noble origin always treated them with scorn.

Sailors were recruited among peasants and workers and were deprived of all rights. The severe conditions of lengthy service in the Navy were aggravated by exhausting drill, cane discipline, and humiliating treatment by officers. Not infrequently, the sailors spontaneously protested and mutinied against their lack of rights and cruel treatment, but for a long time these actions were uncoordinated and sporadic.

The first revolutionary movement in the Russian Army and Navy was the uprising of December 1825. It was started by progressive-minded officers of noble birth with the aim of overthrowing the existing autocratic system and establishing a republic. Several naval crews took part, but Nicholas I crushed the uprising and severely punished the mutineers.

After that, all the anti-tsar activities in the Army and Navy were directed by revolutionary democrats and Populists.[1] Like the Decembrists, the Populists had little in common with the people; they did not understand the role of the popular masses and the working class in the struggle for social progress, and consequently received almost no support among the seamen.

The revolutionary movement in the Army and Navy

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[1] Populists: representatives of the Russian revolutionary movement who maintained that history was made by outstanding personalities or heroes, whom the popular masses blindly followed; the Populists mistakenly regarded the peasantry to be the leading revolutionary force.

gained in scope in the beginning of the 1900s, when class contradictions in Russia had become increasingly acute. The industrial and agrarian crises, the increasing oppression by capitalists, and the setbacks in the war with Japan—all led to growing resentment among the popular masses and to greater tensions inside the country. The working class, the peasantry, and the soldiers and sailors began to take an ever more active part in revolutionary struggle which was led by the Bolshevik Party headed by Lenin. The Bolsheviks realised that in the existing situation the autocracy could be overthrown only by an armed uprising, and they began developing their own military theory and organising revolutionary armed forces. In preparing for an armed uprising, the Bolshevik Party considered it necessary to arm the workers and peasants, on the one hand, and to secure the support of the mass of soldiers and sailors, on the other. To topple the existing autocratic system, it had to be deprived of its main source of support, the Army and Navy. In this connection, Lenin wrote: "Of course, unless the revolution assumes a mass character and affects the troops, there can be no question of serious struggle." [1] The Bolsheviks started large-scale agitation among soldiers and sailors in order to win them over to their side and make them active revolutionaries.

On January 9, 1905, the workers of St. Petersburg staged a peaceful demonstration to hand a petition to the tsar. But government troops opened fire and killed and wounded over three thousand people. This triggered off the first Russian revolution of 1905-1907. The brutal reprisal against a crowd of poor people gave rise to strong indignation all over the country. A strike movement swept across the country in many places developing into armed uprisings. The peasants joined the revolting workers. At the same time, mutinies began in the Army and Navy. Under the influence of the Bolsheviks, progressive-minded soldiers, sailors and officers sided with the workers and peasants. The revolutionary movement in the Navy was the strongest and best organised. Prior to conscription, many sailors had worked at factories and some had already taken part in strikes; moreover, when their ships were under construction or repair,

[1] V. I. Lenin, "Lessons of the Moscow Uprising", *Collected Works*, Vol. 11, p. 174.

the crews mixed with workers of large shipyards, where Marxist influence was becoming strong.

As early as in 1904, Bolshevik sailors had carried on intense propaganda on the Black Sea Fleet. Throughout the summer of 1905, they actively prepared an uprising which was planned for September, but spontaneously broke out ahead of time. On June 14, 1905, in the harbour of Odessa the sailors of the battleship *Prince Potemkin-Tavrichesky* mutinied after the chief officer had given orders to shoot thirty men for refusing to eat soup with rotten meat. The sailors took to arms, killed many of the officers, and captured the ship. But they had no clear plan of action and hesitated in giving armed support to the striking workers of Odessa.

On June 18, 1905, the *Potemkin* met with a squadron of twelve warships which the tsarist government had sent to crush the rebellion. All the crews hailed the mutineers, and the battleship *Georgy Pobedonosets* even joined the *Potemkin*. However, its crew miscalculated in leaving their officers on board, and the latter ran the ship aground.

For more than a week, the *Potemkin* roved the Black Sea flying a red flag. When it ran out of coal, water and food, it sailed to Romania, where the sailors surrendered it to Romanian authorities and disembarked as political emigrants.

Meanwhile, the revolutionary movement in the Black Sea Fleet continued. In November 1905, sailors and soldiers supported by workers started an armed uprising in Sevastopol. It was directed by a Soviet of Sailors', Soldiers' and Workers' Deputies, and the military leader was Lieutenant Pyotr Schmidt from the cruiser *Ochakov*. A total of twelve warships mutinied, and Schmidt hoisted the red flag on the *Ochakov* and proclaimed himself commander of the Black Sea Fleet. But the mutiny received no support from other ships and army units, and the government succeeded in mustering large forces for suppressing it. The revolutionary sailors fought heroically, but were faced by overwhelmingly superior government forces and had to surrender. Many of the rebels fell in battle; the others, including Lieutenant Schmidt, were arrested.

In the autumn of 1905, one of the biggest mutinies in the Russian Navy broke out in Kronstadt. It was followed by unrest in St. Petersburg, Vladivostok and Baku, and by a new wave of revolts in the summer of 1906. However, all

of them were crushed by the tsarist government.

By the autumn of 1906, the revolutionary upsurge in Russia began to subside. In order to fully crush the revolution, the government intensified its repression and began destroying workers' organisations, all of which acted to usher in a period of severe reaction. In October 1907, Russian seamen staged their last uprising of the revolution. This took place in Vladivostok on board the destroyers *Skory, Serdity* and *Trevozhny*. All three ships were defeated in an unequal encounter with government forces.

The tsarist regime made short work of all the mutineers. Lieutenant Schmidt and other rebel leaders were sentenced to death, and three hundred men to various terms of prison and hard labour. Almost 1,000 sailors were punished without trial. In Kronstadt, 36 men were sentenced to death and 1,417 to different terms of prison and hard labour.

Despite the defeat of the Navy and Army revolts in 1905-1907, they were all highly significant factors in the national revolutionary struggle because they provided practical fighting experience and served as valuable lessons for the future struggle of the Bolshevik Party and the working people against tsarism, for a socialist revolution.

The revolutionary movement in the Russian Navy began to grow again during World War I, when tens of thousands of reservists were called up. Bolshevik organisations on the Baltic Fleet became so strong that a special united centre was set up to direct their activities.

Russian naval personnel took an active part in the bourgeois-democratic revolution of February 1917, which finally toppled the hated autocracy. The first to side with the revolution were the sailors from the battleship *Emperor Paul I*, which was then stationed at Helsingfors (now Helsinki) and had a 500-strong Bolshevik membership.

4. The Navy's Role in the Great October Socialist Revolution

On November 7 (October 25),[1] 1917, the socialist revolution triumphed in Russia after an armed uprising of workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors, organised and directed by the Bolshevik Party.

The victory of the October Revolution was largely due to the fact that the Bolshevik Party had won the support of the Army and Navy, which in 1917 numbered over ten million men. By that time, the Russian Navy was a formidable force with over 1,100 warships and auxiliary vessels and about 180,000 servicemen. The Navy took active part in the revolutionary struggle of the proletariat and the working peasantry in establishing Soviet power and overthrowing the Provisional Government, which the capitalists and landlords had set up after the February 1917 bourgeois-democratic revolution.

The bulk of the Navy was stationed in the Baltic, with bases in Helsingfors, Revel (now Tallinn), Kronstadt and Petrograd. In 1917, the Baltic Fleet had 690 warships and auxiliary vessels and over 100,000 men, who played a major role in preparing and carrying out the October Revolution.

In preparing for an armed uprising, the Bolshevik Party carried on extensive propaganda both in the Army and Navy; it sought to liberate the masses of soldiers and sailors from the influence of the petty-bourgeois Menshevik and Socialist-Revolutionary parties, and united them under the direction of the Bolsheviks. Bolshevik military organisations were set up on the battlefronts and in rear garrisons; simultaneously, Party and democratic bodies, e.g., ship, brigade and fleet committees were organised to become strongpoints in the struggle against counter-revolutionaries. At the end of April 1917, the Central Committee of the Baltic Fleet (Centrobalt) was set up on the initiative of Bolshevik sailors. It was directed by the Bolsheviks and became a revolutionary-democratic body which controlled all the activities of the Fleet Commander and headquarters. Unless approved by Centrobalt, no order or decree of the Provisional Government were valid.

Meanwhile, starting from July 1917, the bourgeoisie and the Provisional Government began open counter-revolutionary activities, including armed suppression of the revolutionary masses, persecution of the Bolshevik Party, and mass arrests of revolutionary workers and soldiers. In order to stifle the revolution, the bourgeoisie intended to establish a military dictatorship, and Supreme Commander General

[1] The date shown in brackets corresponds to the Julian Calendar which was used in Russia till February 1, 1918.

Kornilov, its henchman, stirred up a counter-revolutionary revolt. The main blow was directed at Petrograd, the crucial point of all revolutionary activities. On August 25, 1917, after the Germans had captured Riga, Kornilov transferred a cavalry corps and Cossack units from the front to Petrograd; this was done under the pretext of strengthening the capital's defences. The workers, joined by revolutionary soldiers and sailors, took an active part in crushing Kornilov's force. In line with Lenin's orders, Centrobalt sent six destroyers to fight Kornilov and his army of mutineers, and 5,000 sailors were transferred from Kronstadt to reinforce the garrison.

The Bolsheviks called on the people to fight the rebels, and exposed the policies of the Provisional Government, which had actually conspired together with Kornilov. The revolt was put down, and Kornilov dismissed as Commander-in-Chief and arrested. The crushing defeat of the mutineers changed the situation in Russia. Bolshevik influence among the masses, and also in the Army and Navy, grew rapidly, and conditions became ripe for the Bolsheviks to take power through an armed uprising.

By October 1917, the revolutionary forces in Petrograd numbered over 20,000 Red Guards, 60,000 Baltic sailors and almost 150,000 soldiers. The opposing counter-revolutionary forces had only 30,000-40,000 soldiers, cadets and Cossacks.[1]

The plan of an armed uprising was worked out by Lenin, who directed all the preparations and subsequent operations. The Baltic Fleet was to play a decisive role by defending Petrograd from a possible German naval attack and by taking direct part in all combat activities inside and outside the capital. It was to deploy warships in the Neva and concentrate its fire on the Winter Palace, the residence of the Provisional Government, and other important objectives; furthermore, it was to interact with the Red Guard and the soldiers; capture railway lines leading to the capital; and send large forces for joint actions with the workers.

[1] *50 let Vooruzhonnykh Sil SSSR* (Fifty Years of Soviet Armed Forces), Moscow, 1968, p. 16 (in Russian).

In implementing Bolshevik instructions, Centrobalt, in mid-October 1917, started to prepare the sailors for the armed uprising. Elections of commissars began on all warships and in coastal units; this was accompanied by purveyance of weapons and by military training. By the end of October, when the uprising was to begin, the Centrobalt had sent eleven warships to Petrograd. The cruiser *Aurora* and the mine-layers *Amur* and *Khopyor* were lying on the Neva opposite the Winter Palace. A detachment of more than 10,000 sailors arrived from Kronstadt and almost 4,500 from Helsingfors to take part in the storming of the General Staff building, the Winter Palace and other important points. The sailors took control of the railway lines connecting Petrograd with Finland, and prevented counter-revolutionaries from lifting the bridges across the Neva. Thus, they were a vital factor in the success of the uprising.

The armed uprising in Petrograd began in the morning of October 24, 1917. The Red Guards, soldiers and sailors captured all the key points in the city, and by the morning of October 25, the city was in the hands of the people.

The Petrograd Military Revolutionary Committee issued a proclamation called "To the Citizens of Russia!" which was written by Lenin. The proclamation declared: "The Provisional Government has been deposed. State power has passed into the hands of the organ of the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies – the Revolutionary Military Committee, which heads the Petrograd proletariat and the garrison.... Long live the revolution of workers, soldiers and peasants!" [1]

On October 25, revolutionary units continued to destroy all remaining pockets of resistance. In the evening, they began to advance towards the Winter Palace, the seat of the Provisional Government. At 9:40 p.m., after the Provisional Government had refused to surrender, the cruiser *Aurora* fired a signal shot for the storm of the Winter Palace. Four hours later the palace was in the hands of the revolutionaries, and the members of the Provisional Government

[1] V. I. Lenin, "To the Citizens of Russia!" *Collected Works*, Vol. 26, p. 236.

were arrested. This was the victorious climax of the armed uprising in Petrograd.

On October 26, 1917, the historic Second All-Russia Congress of Soviets opened. The Congress ruled that from now on all power in the capital and provinces belonged to Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies. In addition it adopted the historic Decrees on Peace and on Land,[1] and announced the formation of a new Russian Government, the Council of People's Commissars, headed by Lenin.

After the victory in Petrograd, armed uprisings triumphed in Moscow and other cities, too. On Lenin's instructions, a detachment of Baltic sailors was sent to Moscow to help the Red Guards fight counter-revolutionaries. The news of the victory of the armed uprising in Petrograd was enthusiastically acclaimed by the sailors of the Black Sea Fleet and the Arctic, Caspian, Amur and other flotillas, who also took an active part in establishing Soviet power in other regions of the country. Marking the services of revolutionary sailors, Lenin declared: "In this respect the Navy has shown itself to be well to the fore, offering a brilliant example of the creative capacity latent in the working masses."[2]

5. Creation of the Soviet Navy

Immediately after the victory of the armed uprising in Petrograd, the forces of international imperialism and internal counter-revolution took up arms against the young Soviet Republic and compelled her to start a struggle for existence. The ruling circles of the imperialist countries regarded the victory of the socialist revolution in Russia as a mortal threat to their continued existence. They feared that

[1] The Decree on Peace proposed that all the warring parties should immediately conclude an armistice and begin talks on a just and democratic peace without annexations and indemnities. The governments of imperialist states responded by a conspiracy of silence. The Decree on Land proclaimed the abolition of private ownership of land, mineral resources, woods, and waters, i.e., their nationalisation. Lands belonging to landlords, the Church and monasteries were turned over to the peasants free.

[2] V.I. Lenin, "Speech at the First All-Russia Congress of the Navy, November 22 (December 5), 1917", *Collected Works,* Vol. 26, p. 342.

the Russian revolution might spread to other countries and that the working class would then try to repeat the Russian workers' success; they therefore sought not only to crush the revolution, but to destroy the Soviet state.

At that time, however, the imperialist states of Europe were preoccupied with World War I and could not immediately send troops to crush the Russian revolution. So they started by organising counter-revolutionary conspiracies inside the country; they prepared numerous anti-Soviet revolts and subversive actions, started an economic blockade, supported saboteurs, and slandered the Communist Party and Soviet government.

At the end of October 1917, the first revolt was started by Kerensky, former head of the Provisional Government, and tsarist General Krasnov. The counter-revolutionary forces advanced to the suburbs of Petrograd, triggering off a cadet mutiny inside the city. In response to a call by the Communist Party, Red Guards and revolutionary sailors and soldiers repelled the advance of the mutineers and started a counter-offensive; on November 1, the mutiny was crushed. Up to 5,000 sailors and several warships took part in the operation.

Soviet power also met armed resistance from White Guards on the Don, in Moscow, Baku, the Ukraine, the Urals, and elsewhere. Anti-Soviet Cossack mutinies backed by the US, British and French, on the Don and in the Southern Urals were especially dangerous to the nation. The Cossacks were joined by bourgeois nationalists in the Ukraine, the Caucasus, Bashkiria, Turkestan and Central Asia, and the combined counter-revolutionary forces nurtured plans of marching on Petrograd and Moscow.

With the active support of all the working people, the Red Guard and revolutionary soldiers and sailors quickly eliminated all the main enemy strongholds and consolidated Soviet power throughout the country. In those days, Russian seamen were always among the foremost defenders of Soviet power, and Lenin himself sent them to the most crucial fronts.

Counter-revolutionary forces failed to destroy the Soviet Republic, and by February 1918 Soviet power was firmly established almost all over the territory of the former Russian Empire. In December 1917, the government signed an armistice with Germany and her allies. This gave Soviet Russia a respite, which, in line with her peaceful policy, she

sought to transform into a lengthy peace so as to consolidate Soviet government in the provinces and start economic reconstruction.

But the imperialists would not let this come about. After all attempts to destroy the young republic by means of a counter-revolution had failed, the imperialists started an open intervention. Despite the armistice, Germany still nourished the idea of resuming hostilities and had many divisions ready for action. The Entente [1] governments had rejected Soviet proposals that they conclude peace with the Germans; on the contrary, they considered plans to strangle Soviet Russia, the world's first republic of workers and peasants.

This was a serious danger. The Red Guard alone could not defend the country against the regular armies of Germany, the Entente and organised counter-revolution, since by the early 1918 it had only 150,000 poorly trained men, and the old army was falling apart.

The Communist Party and Soviet government were faced with the urgent task of demobilising the old army and creating a new army of workers and peasants. However, the continuing state of war with Germany and her allies did not permit the immediate disbanding of the old army. For that reason, prior to concluding peace with Germany and creating a new army, the Soviet government introduced some democratic reforms in the old army and gradually cut down its size; it also disbanded the outdated institutions and agencies of the former tsarist War Ministry.

The Council of People's Commissars adopted several decrees, according to which all power in the army was transferred to Soldiers' Committees and Soviets. The decrees established the election of officers and equal rights for all servicemen irrespective of rank; these measures deprived reactionary generals and officers of all power and the possibility to use the army for counter-revolutionary purposes. The democratic reforms permitted the promotion to commanding posts of many talented organisers from among soldiers, sailors and officers loyal to the revolution.

At the same time, the Soviet government disbanded, reorganised and purged all central and provincial military

[1] *Entente Cordiale*—a military and political bloc including Britain, France and Russia; organised around 1904-1907 and, during World War I, joined by the US, Japan, Italy and some other countries. During the war, the term Entente was used for the entire anti-German coalition.

administrative bodies. Hostile generals and officers were replaced by members of the Red Guard and by revolutionary soldiers and sailors. The Navy was subjected to similar democratisation and purged of reactionary officers. As early as during the October 1917 armed uprising, a Naval Revolutionary Committee, the first All-Russia administrative body in the Navy, was set up. The Committee appointed commissars to all the central naval institutions, and a Supreme Naval Board was put in temporary charge of the remaining institutions of the old Ministry of the Navy. The fleets and flotillas were administered by elected democratic bodies called Central Fleet Committees, in which Bolsheviks played a leading role.

Thus, from the very outset, the Communist Party and Soviet government began preparations for building new armed forces capable of defending the gains of the revolution. On January 28, 1918, the government adopted a decree for creating a Workers' and Peasants' Red Army, and on February 11, 1918, a Workers' and Peasants' Red Navy. Both decrees were signed by Lenin; Pavel Dybenko, a Bolshevik sailor from the Baltic Fleet, was appointed People's Commissar for Naval Affairs. Simultaneously, the government adopted a statute for service in the new Navy.

For the first time in history, these decrees proclaimed a basic class principle for admission to the armed forces, which now were responsible for crushing the resistance of the overthrown exploiter classes and for the defence of the socialist Motherland. The Army and Navy were recruited from workers and peasants loyal to the revolution, irrespective of their nationality. At first, the services were organised on a voluntary basis, and all the officers were elected. The Army and Navy were soon recruited on a nationwide scale. Workers, Red Guards and reservists joined the Red Army while revolutionary sailors who had voluntarily stayed on to continue service when the old Navy was being demobilised formed the nucleus of the first Red Navy units.

The Soviet Armed Forces were created in highly complex and severe conditions, when the Republic was invaded by the Germans. On February 18, 1918, Germany violated the armistice and began a large-scale offensive along the entire front. Overcoming the resistance of numerically inferior Red Army units and Red Guard detachments, the Germans penetrated deep inside Russia and occupied large areas in Byelor-

ussia and the Ukraine, and the whole of Estonia and Latvia. German troops advancing on Narva and Pskov sought to capture Petrograd, the cradle of the revolution, and German warships entered the Gulf of Finland to strike at Petrograd. The Soviet Republic was threatened with mortal danger.

On February 21, 1918, after the military situation had become increasingly aggravated, the Soviet government appealed to the nation. The appeal was written by Lenin and entitled "The Socialist Fatherland is in Danger!" In response, tens of thousands of front-rank workers from Petrograd, Moscow and other cities, frontline soldiers and sailors volunteered to serve in the Red Army, and all the newly-formed units were immediately detailed to the battlefront.

The Soviet Command greatly appreciated the role of naval personnel. In January 1918, the People's Commissariat for Military Affairs issued an instruction which read: "In connection with the forming of socialist army units which will soon be detailed to the front, it is necessary to send a platoon of seamen to every troop train with 1,000 volunteers to help knit the latter together." [1] In compliance with this instruction, every thousand Red Armymen active on the main Petrograd theatre were reinforced with about 40 sailors.

In those days of severe trials, Red Army units and Baltic sailors staunchly repelled the onslaught of German forces and stopped their advance on Petrograd. On February 22 and 23, 1918, the people of Petrograd, Moscow and other cities volunteered *en masse* to fight the enemy, and the German advance was finally stopped at Narva and Pskov. Ever since then, February 23 has been annually celebrated in the USSR as Soviet Armed Forces Day to commemorate the mass enthusiasm shown by the Soviet people in 1918 in defence of the socialist Motherland and the valiant resistance put up by the Red Army against the German invaders.

The growing resistance of the Red Army made the Germans realise that they could not crush Soviet power just with one blow, and peace talks were resumed. On March 3, 1918, Soviet Russia signed a peace treaty with Germany in Brest-Litovsk, and though the terms were very harsh they gave Russia a chance to drop out of World War I and begin developing her economy and defences.

[1] *Moryaki v borbe za vlast Sovetov* (Seamen in the Struggle for Soviet Power. Collected Documents), Leningrad, 1968, p. 72 (in Russian).

6. Battles Against Foreign Interventionists and White Guards

The respite after the Treaty of Brest proved short-lived. In the spring of 1918, the history of the Soviet state was marked by a new period when workers and peasants rose in a war of liberation against the combined forces of international imperialism and internal counter-revolution. This was the period of a Civil War imposed on the Soviet Republic by international imperialism, which organised a military intervention against the stronghold of world proletarian revolution. The rulers of capitalist countries wanted to conquer and dismember Soviet Russia and to enslave her people. In those days, Lenin wrote: "The world bourgeoisie—at first the German and then the Anglo-French (often both together)—made war on the victorious proletariat of Russia." [1]

As early as December 1917, Britain and France agreed on the areas of future operations. The British zone was to include the Northern Caucasus, Transcaucasia and Central Asia, and the French zone the Ukraine and the Crimea. The Entente regarded Siberia and the Soviet Far East as spheres of Japanese and American interests.

In March 1918, British, French and later US troops landed in Murmansk, and in August occupied Archangel. Together with the White Guards they overthrew Soviet power in the north of Russia and established a savage occupation regime. At almost the same time, the intervention in the Soviet Far East began. In April, Japanese troops and a British unit landed in Vladivostok; in mid-August, together with an American Expeditionary Force and Russian White Guards, they occupied the entire Soviet Far East. The foreign interventionists also helped to overthrow Soviet power in many areas of Central Asia. The Entente financed and actively supported mass mutinies in the Southern Urals, Northern Caucasus, and other regions. Simultaneously with the military intervention, the imperialist states organised a severe economic blockade of Soviet Russia.

By the autumn of 1918, the interventionists and White Guards had occupied three-fourths of all Soviet territory, and the country was surrounded by one continuous ring of battlefronts.

[1] V. I. Lenin, "In the Servants' Quarters", *Collected Works*, Vol. 29, p. 543.

Foreign naval forces also took an active part in the intervention. They landed troops, delivered equipment and ammunition to the White Guards, bombarded Soviet towns and shores, stole valuable property, captured Soviet ships, blockaded Soviet ports and shores, and committed acts of pillage and violence.

From the very start of the Civil War, the Soviet Navy was faced with great difficulties. In Murmansk, Archangel, Baku, Vladivostok and Khabarovsk, the interventionists had captured all Soviet warships stationed there and a similar threat loomed large in the Baltic and Black seas. In the winter of 1918, the bulk of the Baltic Fleet was stationed at its main base in Helsingfors, Finland. Under the Treaty of Brest, Soviet Russia was to immediately transfer all her warships to home ports. The Germans reckoned this would be unfeasible in winter and tried to capture the ships in Helsingfors but failed.

The Soviet government then ordered a speedy transfer of the fleet from Helsingfors to Kronstadt. In March-April 1918, despite the thick ice in the Gulf of Finland, shortage of fuel and 60 to 80 per cent undermanned crews, the operation was successfully completed. It has since gone down in the history of the Navy as the Ice Expedition. A total of 236 warships and auxiliary vessels, including six battleships, five cruisers and 59 destroyers were brought to Kronstadt with the aid of ice-breakers. The fleet operation helped strengthen the capital's defences and Soviet positions in general.

The Soviet Black Sea Fleet, too, was faced with an exceptionally complex situation. Supported by Ukrainian nationalists, the Germans continued to capture new territories in the south of the country. The Black Sea Fleet and the Danube Flotilla fought the interventionists from the very first days. However, despite the stubborn resistance of Ukrainian workers and peasants, the 300,000-strong German Army in March 1918 occupied most of the Ukraine.

At the end of April 1918, the Germans invaded the Crimea and captured Simferopol. They then demanded the surrender of the Black Sea Fleet stationed in Sevastopol. To prevent the fleet from falling into German hands, most of the vessels were transferred to Novorossiisk in the Northern Caucasus. The Germans took Sevastopol, and by the end of May occupied Georgia. The danger that the enemy would capture the warships, this time in Novorossiisk, again

became a reality, and on June 18, 1918, on the instructions of Lenin, part of the fleet was sunk. The remaining warships either sailed to the Sea of Azov to form the nucleus of the Azov Flotilla, or were captured by the Germans.

The Communist Party called on the nation to start a patriotic war in the defence of the Soviet Republic, the bulwark of the world's working people. Within a short while, the country was turned into a united fighting camp. All forces and resources were directed towards the strengthening of the armed forces and the ensuring of a successful struggle against the foreign interventionists and White Guards. The Navy took part in the offensive and defensive operations of ground forces; fought enemy vessels on seas, rivers and lakes; made bold raids behind enemy lines; and fulfilled many other combat missions. About 75,000 sailors fought alongside land troops; armoured train crews and artillery and infantry units were formed from seamen.

The Baltic Fleet played an important role in the Civil War. It had strong fighting and revolutionary traditions, and during the war was the main base and school for training cadres for the entire Soviet Navy. It supplied warships, planes and weapons for ground operations, and its sailors formed the nuclei of many river flotillas and Army units.

The Baltic Fleet was constantly on combat alert in case of the resumption of hostilities with Germany, and rendered substantial support to the Army. On the instructions of Lenin, in the summer of 1918 some of the surface ships and submarines were sent from the Baltic to the Volga and the Caspian Sea, and also to lakes Ladoga and Onega. The Baltic Fleet supplied many men to the battlefronts, including crews for armoured trains. It actively helped the 7th Army on the Western Front to defend Petrograd. Despite poor bases and an acute fuel shortage, Baltic seamen staunchly defended the gains of the revolution. They took part in mine-sweeping operations and supported the Red Army by pounding General Yudenich's White Guards on the shore.

In 1918-1919, Baltic destroyers and submarines inflicted severe losses on the interventionists. As many as eighteen enemy warships were sunk, and in the autumn of 1919 the British were forced to leave the Gulf of Finland.

Here is just one episode. On May 18, 1919, four Soviet mine-sweepers escorted by the destroyer *Gavriil* encountered four British destroyers. Seeing that the forces were in their

favour, the British boldly advanced. The *Gavriil* responded with fire, and the mine-sweepers withdrew behind the mine barrages which they had laid. For a whole hour, the Soviet destroyer skilfully manoeuvred and fought a rearguard action. One enemy destroyer was damaged and the others were compelled to stop their pursuit.

River and lake flotillas consisting chiefly of freighters armed with field and naval guns were formed to support Red Army units and to give them greater mobility and striking force. During the Civil War, 34 river and lake flotillas and nine independent units comprising a total of 2,000 vessels and motorboats operated on various battlefronts. They gave artillery support to Red Army units operating along rivers and lakes, ferried troops and equipment across rivers, backed landings, and fought White Guard flotillas.

The Onega Flotilla was active on lakes Onega and Ladoga. It defended the approaches to Petrograd from the northwest and backed Red Army troops on the battlefront lying between the two lakes. On June 27, 1919, the flotilla, reinforced by two Baltic Fleet destroyers, landed a commando in the estuary of the River Vidlitsa which forced the enemy to retreat to the Finnish frontier.

In the summer of 1918, when the situation in the east of the country was especially serious, the Volga, Volga-Kama and other flotillas were formed for joint action with ground forces on the Eastern and North Caucasian fronts. They backed them with artillery fire, transported and ferried troops, and landed task forces. As a result, the Red Army captured many towns on the Volga and its tributaries.

Reinforced by destroyers and submarines from the Baltic, the Astrakhan-Caspian Flotilla, and from July 1919, the Volga-Caspian Flotilla, operated successfully against the interventionist and White Guard Caspian fleets. In the spring and summer of 1919, it took part in the defence of Astrakhan, Tsaritsyn (now Volgograd) and the lower reaches of the Volga, and, in the spring of 1920, in liberating settlements on the northern coast of the Caspian and in routing the British in Transcaucasia.

In August 1918, the North Dvina Flotilla was formed for fighting the British and White Guards in the north. It supported ground troops and fought against a superior enemy flotilla. In the autumn of 1918, in joint actions with land forces, it foiled enemy attempts to break through and join

Admiral Kolchak's army. Using mine barrages and artillery fire it prevented British warships from sailing up the North Dvina and helped the 6th Army stop the enemy advance. In 1918, two detachments of Baltic Fleet sailors and the North Dvina Flotilla conducted successful joint operations against the enemy.[1]

In 1919-1920, the Dnieper Flotilla operated successfully on the Dnieper, Pripyat and Berezina rivers against the Polish forces, the White Guards and bands of Ukrainian nationalists.

In 1920, the Azov Flotilla gave major support to the Southwestern and Caucasian fronts in defeating the White Guards of General Wrangel. It defended the northwestern coast of the Black Sea from enemy landings and backed Red Army coastal operations. In mid-August 1920, the flotilla helped smash a 9,000-strong White Guard unit which had landed on the eastern coast of the Sea of Azov.

For more than three years, the working people of Soviet Russia were compelled to wage a gruelling struggle against numerous and well-armed forces of foreign interventionists and White Guards. The struggle ended in a historic Soviet victory: by the end of 1920 almost all of Russia except the eastern area was cleared of foreign invaders and internal counter-revolutionaries, and although the war still continued in the outlying areas, rehabilitation of the national economy was started. Thus, the plans of international imperialism to strangle Soviet Russia and destroy the world's first state of working people were thwarted.

By defeating the forces of international imperialism and internal reaction, the workers and peasants of Soviet Russia upheld the freedom and independence of their Motherland and their right to build a new life.

Being an integral part of the Soviet Armed Forces, the Navy, like the Red Army, played a major role in this victory. On all battlefronts, Soviet seamen showed themselves valiant defenders of the gains of the October Revolution. Many warships received the Honorary Revolutionary Red Banner, the Republic's highest award for courage and heroism, and hundreds of servicemen were decorated with the Order of the Red Banner.

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[1] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota* (The Battleroads of the Soviet Navy), Moscow, 1974, pp. 83-84 (in Russian).

CHAPTER II

YEARS OF GREAT TRIALS

1. The Days Before

The battles of the Civil War over, the Soviet people set about restoring their devastated economy. But they could not concentrate all their efforts on peaceful construction because of the unstable world situation. The imperialists did not abandon their plans of annihilating Soviet Russia, and this obliged the Communist Party and the Soviet government to strengthen the country's defences. At that time, Lenin pointed out that "having started on our work of peaceful development we shall exert every effort to continue it without interruption. At the same time, comrades, be vigilant, safeguard the defence potential of our country, strengthen our Red Army to the utmost, and remember that we have no right to permit an instant's slackening where our workers and peasants and their gains are concerned".[1]

Naval development played a very important part in planning national security, since safeguarding the extensive Soviet sea frontiers was a particularly serious question.

By the end of the Civil War, Soviet Russia had no fleets in the Far East and the north, and almost nothing in the Black Sea, where during the war years all naval vessels had either been destroyed or captured by the enemy. What remained was only the Baltic Fleet, small naval forces in the Caspian, and lake and river flotillas. Most of the ships required overhauling and modernisation, and many that could sail were

[1] V. I. Lenin, "Ninth All-Russia Congress of Soviets", *Collected Works*, Vol. 33, p. 151.

laid up because of lack of fuel. The Civil War and the ruined economy had severely affected the shipbuilding industry; ports and bases functioned poorly, and there was a great shortage of specialists. By the end of 1921, the naval personnel had gone down from 180,000 to 35,000. Some vessels were undermanned by as much as 60-80 per cent. Most of the commanders were former officers of the tsarist Navy; the noncommissioned officers and sailors had served their terms; and the young commanders produced from revolutionary ranks needed serious theoretical and practical training. The Soviet government regarded the Navy as a very important component of the armed forces and sought to restore its fighting efficiency as soon as possible.

In March 1921, the 10th Communist Party Congress adopted the following resolution: "In accordance with the general situation and the material resources of the Soviet Republic, the Congress deems it necessary to take measures for reviving and consolidating the Red Navy." The resolution found wide support among the people. Reconstruction of warships and naval bases began, and measures were taken to quickly improve and strengthen organisation and combat training. Over 1,200 Communists demobilised earlier from the Navy were called back for service.

The Young Communist League (Komsomol), the mass youth organisation, became the Navy's patron in October 1922, and made major contributions to building the Soviet Navy. In 1922-1923 alone, as a result of three voluntary drafts, as many as 8,000 Komsomol members joined the Navy, and about 1,000 entered naval schools. Communists and Komsomol members were enthusiastic fighters loyal to socialism; they consolidated discipline, improved combat and political training, and did everything to hasten reconstruction of docks, shipyards, ports and naval bases. As a result, nearly 60 warships and auxiliary vessels were recommissioned on the Black Sea in 1922-1923.

Due to the continuing revival and development of the economy and to various organisational measures, by the end of 1924 the Soviet Navy had two battleships, two cruisers, 17 destroyers, 14 submarines, 45 ships of other classes and 98 auxiliary vessels. Naval reconstruction went on at an increasingly good pace. New technologies were introduced to provide further consolidation of the nation's economic and defence potential, and in 1927 construction of torpedo boats,

coast guard vessels and new types of submarines began. By the beginning of 1928, almost all the naval vessels had been rebuilt and streamlined.

In their everyday training, Soviet seamen held exercises in defending sea frontiers and supporting coastal operations by ground troops. Soviet warships began to sail on extended cruises and to call at foreign ports, and this was important not only for enhancing the Navy's fighting efficiency, but for spreading the truth about the country.

By the end of the 1920s, the fighting potential of the Soviet Navy had noticeably grown. But its equipment was still essentially behind that of the navies of developed capitalist countries. Meanwhile, the international situation was becoming increasingly complicated. The imperialist threat against the Soviet Union continued to grow, and the armed forces of capitalist countries were being constantly updated.

All this required that the Army and Navy be fully modernised and further strengthened, and the pre-World War II five-year plans of economic development (1928-1941) provided the necessary conditions for doing that. The far-sighted policy of the Communist Party aimed at industrialising the country, and collectivising its agriculture, as well as the planned socialist economy and selfless labour of the Soviet people established the USSR as a major industrial power and laid down a strong foundation for further economic and technological progress and the consolidation of the nation's defences. By 1937, Soviet industrial output was the highest in Europe and second in the world after the United States.

The highly developed Soviet economy and advanced science and technology permitted the equipping of the armed forces with new weapons, and made it possible to build large warships and submarines.

The social transformations that had brought about the victory of socialism in the USSR were of enormous significance in strengthening the country's defence potential. The exploiter classes had been eliminated, and the alliance of the working class and collective-farm peasantry had become stronger, as had the moral and political unity of the people, and the friendship among all Soviet nations and nationalities, now free from oppression and inequality. All this resulted in an improved social structure in the Army and Navy.

The cultural revolution in the USSR had also largely

helped build stronger defences. Universal schooling and higher educational, professional and political standards of the Soviet people provided possibilities for manning the Army and Navy with personnel capable of quickly mastering sophisticated weaponry.

During all these years, however, international reactionaries and the enemies of socialism had never stopped their provocatory intrigues. Fearing the growth of Soviet might and prestige, they organised armed provocations and military conflicts on Soviet frontiers and strove to prevent the Soviet people from building a new life in peace.

In September 1931, the Japanese militarists occupied Manchuria creating a hotbed of war in the Far East. Japan's policies towards the USSR were increasingly unfriendly and aggressive. In the summer of 1938, Japanese troops invaded Soviet territory near Lake Khasan not far from Vladivostok, but were driven out. Nonetheless, in May 1939, they invaded the Mongolian People's Republic near the Khalkhin-Gol River. The USSR had a treaty of mutual assistance with Mongolia and came to her aid. The Red Army and Mongolian units launched large-scale operations and routed the Japanese invaders.

The second hotbed of war was created in Europe when the nazis came to power in Germany and started open preparations for war in a bid for world domination.

In implementing its Leninist policy of peaceful coexistence with capitalist countries the USSR made great efforts to check the nazi aggressors and to prevent them from unleashing a new war.

However, the British, French and American governments not only did not counteract the aggressors, but, on the contrary, did everything to strengthen their military and economic potential in the hope of directing German fascism and Japanese militarism against the USSR and crushing the world communist movement. As a result of their passivity and even occasional direct connivance with the Germans and Japanese, the Western powers helped to increase the aggressive appetites of German fascism in Europe and Japanese militarism in the Far East. As a result, humanity was plunged into the abyss of World War II.

Being fully aware of the dangerous policies of nazi Germany and militarist Japan, the Soviet government and Communist Party continued their struggle for peace in Europe

and the Far East, for curbing the aggressive actions of fascism. At the same time, they did everything necessary to strengthen Soviet defences. The Army and Navy were quickly modernised and increased in manpower. In 1938-1940, construction of the first Soviet battleships, heavy and light cruisers, and new types of destroyers was started. Their tactical characteristics and specifications were superior to those of similar foreign vessels. In addition to building various surface ships, the Soviet government planned to construct more than 200 submarines and equip the Navy with better aircraft, anti-aircraft defences and coastal batteries.

Thanks to the work of Soviet shipbuilders and allied workers, 100 different warships, chiefly destroyers, submarines, mine-sweepers and torpedo boats were delivered to the Navy during eleven months of 1940 alone. Moreover, 269 ships of all classes were under construction, and some of them were commissioned in the first half of 1941 and took part in the Great Patriotic War against nazi Germany.[1] During the war, construction of different classes of warships was continued. They were equipped with high quality instruments and weapons, all of which were designed by Soviet scientists and engineers; for example, destroyers were armed with 130 mm guns, cruisers were armed with 180 mm systems, and new models of anti-submarine and mine-sweeping weapons were also produced. In 1939, the Navy received a new type of gas-steam torpedo and low- and high-altitude air torpedoes. Improved Soviet navigation equipment made it possible for ships to sail in complex weather conditions. Naval aviation was also on the increase, the aircraft being chiefly the same as those used by the Army; naval coastal batteries in 1940 alone increased in number by 50 per cent.

By commissioning new warships, the Soviet government was able to strengthen the Baltic and Black Sea fleets and the Amur and Caspian flotillas, and organise new ones. Naval forces in the Soviet Far East had existed since 1932 and in 1935 were reorganised into the Pacific Fleet. The Northern Flotilla, stationed in the North Sea since 1933, was reorganised in 1937 into the Northern Fleet. The Northern Pacific Flotilla was formed in 1939.

The construction in 1933 of the White Sea-Baltic Canal and the exploration of the Northern Sea Route connecting the Baltic and White seas with the Pacific were of paramount economic importance. In July-October 1936, the destroyers *Stalin* and *Voikov* sailed from Kronstadt to Vladivostok to open the Northern Sea Route as a permanently operating line of communication.

Soviet seamen quickly mastered their combat equipment, improved their naval training, and often went on extended voyages to Italy and Turkey. These courtesy visits were made both by single warships of different classes and groups of ships. In the Baltic, training vessels also regularly went abroad.

Soviet warships sailed along the Northern Sea Route and via the Panama and Suez canals. In July-August 1939, a flotilla of mine-sweepers went from the Baltic to Vladivostok via the Panama Canal. In the same year, another mine-sweeper flotilla and two hydrographic research vessels sailed from the Black Sea to Vladivostok via the Suez Canal.

At the end of the thirties, submarines sailed on extended voyages, during which they provided scientific expeditions with communication. In 1938, for instance, the submarine *Krasnogvardeyets,* sailing from the Barents Sea to the southern shores of Greenland, provided communication links with the ships that took part in removing a group of polar explorers led by Ivan Papanin from a drifting North Pole Survey Station. For the first time in the history of navigation, the *Krasnogvardeyets* navigated briefly under thick ice.

In the period between the world wars the Soviet Navy helped the Red Army defend the nation's frontiers and repel imperialist provocations. In 1929, the Amur Flotilla was awarded the Order of the Red Banner for its role in routing the Chinese militarists that had attacked Soviet frontiers in the Far East. In 1938, the Soviet Pacific Fleet helped the Red Army repel Japanese aggression at Lake Khasan. From October 1939 to March 1940, the Baltic Fleet, the Ladoga Flotilla and the Northern Fleet operated successfully during the imperialist-provoked Finnish-Soviet conflict.

After Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Bessarabia had joined the USSR, the nation's shorelines were considerably extended, and new naval bases were built for their defence. This made it possible to deploy the Baltic and Black Sea fleets over wider areas and to push back naval frontiers in the north from important Soviet centres in the Gulf of Fin-

[1] See: S. G. Gorshkov, *Morskaya moshch gosudarstva* (Soviet Naval Might), Moscow, 1976, pp. 223-24 (in Russian).

land further to the Baltic, and, in the south, to the estuary of the Danube, the base of the newly-formed Danube Flotilla. At the same time, the Dnieper Flotilla was reorganised into the Pinsk Flotilla.

In the years preceding World War II, Soviet military theory was being intensively developed, and future combat operations were to involve the joint efforts of all arms and services.

Continued naval construction and development resulted in greater skills being acquired by Soviet sailors. In the course of combat training they improved tactical interaction both between groups and squadrons and with ground forces operating in maritime regions. Warships practiced giving artillery support to land forces and landing operations, and protecting ground troops from sea attack.

By the beginning of the Great Patriotic War, the Soviet Navy had become a formidable force. It included the Northern and Pacific fleets, the Baltic and Black Sea fleets, and the Danube, Caspian, Pinsk and Amur flotillas with a total of three battleships, seven light cruisers, 54 leaders and destroyers, 22 coast guards, 80 mine-sweepers, 287 torpedo boats, 212 submarines, 2,580 planes of all types, and 260 shore batteries.

Guided by the Communist Party, the Soviet people had built a Navy capable of ensuring the security of the nation's sea frontiers and giving effective assistance to the Red Army. Fostered by the Communist Party and the Komsomol, Soviet sailors had high morale, were bound by strong friendship, and were loyal to their duty and Motherland, and to the fine traditions of the Navy.

2. Rebuff to the Enemy at Sea and on Land

Early on the morning of June 22, 1941, nazi Germany treacherously violated the Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact, launching a surprise attack against the USSR without any formal declaration of war. Joined by Hungary, Italy, Romania and Finland, Germany dealt the Soviet Union a tremendous blow. By that time, Germany had a powerful military and economic potential, which included not only her own economic resources and manpower, but those of all the occupied states of Western Europe and her allies.

When war began, the nazi Army was 5.5 million strong and outnumbered the Soviet frontier guards almost two times (in some places the figure went up to 3-4 times and more).[1]

Before attacking the USSR, Germany had conquered eleven European states. She needed only 44 days to occupy France, and 19 to capture Holland and Belgium. It seemed there was no force in Europe capable of withstanding the German aggressors, and the nazi leadership counted on a lightning victory in the East, too.

The Soviet Union had always pursued a peaceful foreign policy which rejected war as a means for solving political disagreements between states. The nazi attack was an unprovoked act of aggression, and the actions of the nazi leadership reflected the anti-communist and anti-Soviet policies of the most reactionary imperialist forces. The main objective of the nazi aggressors was to eliminate the Soviet social and political system, annihilating the world's first socialist state, and depriving the Soviet people of national independence.

Taking advantage of their temporary superiority, the German armies swooped down upon the USSR, moving quickly towards Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and Donbas, the country's most important centres. The Soviet people were compelled to come to grips with nazi Germany and her European allies, beginning the Great Patriotic War.

At first, the war took an unfavourable course for the USSR despite the heroism of Soviet officers and men. In frontier actions, Soviet forces suffered tremendous losses of men and equipment and had to withdraw with heavy fighting deep inside the country. By mid-July 1941, the Germans had occupied Latvia, Lithuania, part of Byelorussia and part of the Ukraine west of the Dnieper; they had also invaded the western regions of the Russian Federation, reaching the distant approaches to Leningrad, and threatening Smolensk and Kiev.

The USSR was in serious peril. Yet nothing was able to break the morale of Soviet soldiers or to shake the faith of the Soviet people in ultimate victory over the nazi aggres-

[1] *Istoriya vtoroi mirovoi voiny 1939-1945* (A History of the Second World War 1939-1945), Vol. 4, Moscow, 1975, pp. 27-28 (in Russian).

sors. At the frontlines and in the rear, the Soviet people, despite all hardships, displayed heroism, selflessness and unprecedented fortitude and courage.

As in the Civil War, the Communist Party led the people in their struggle for freedom and independence. Under the Party's slogan "Everything for the Front, Everything for Victory!" the country turned into a single fighting camp. The sons and daughters of the more than 130 Soviet nations and nationalities rose in a holy war against the enemy. Hundreds of thousands of people not called up applied either to go to the front or to join the people's voluntary corps. Industrial workers and collective farmers started a mass movement for supplying the army in the field with all necessary equipment and products, and women and teenagers replaced workers who were at the frontlines. Life was being intensely reorganised to suit wartime needs. All major branches of the economy were switched over to arms production. Numerous industrial enterprises were evacuated to the east from threatened areas, and after a short while began producing weapons and equipment; by the middle of 1942, 1,200 evacuated enterprises were already in operation. In addition, 850 new plants, workshops, mines, power stations, blast and open hearth furnaces, and mills were commissioned, and new types of tanks, planes and artillery systems were quickly developed. All this acted to increase supplies to the front within a relatively short period of time. Despite nazi occupation of the western regions of the country, military production began to rise as early as December 1941. By the middle of 1942, the Soviet wartime economy had not only restored the pre-war output, but considerably surpassed it.[1]

The measures taken by the Communist Party and Soviet government for readjusting life to wartime needs were of paramount importance in creating all the necessary conditions for waging a successful war. Resistance against the nazis steadily grew. In the fierce defensive battles of the first months, the Red Army and Navy severely mauled the enemy's shock armies and in the early winter of 1941 halted their advance. In December 1941, as a result of heavy battles in the environs of Moscow Soviet forces routed the main German Army group and repulsed it from the Soviet capital.

[1] *Istoriya vtoroi mirovoi voiny 1939-1945* (A History of the Second World War 1939-1945), Vol. 5, Moscow, 1975, p. 36 (in Russian).

The nazis suffered their first major defeat of the war, shattering the myth about the invincibility of the German Army. Thus, Hitler's adventurous plan to stage a blitzkrieg against the USSR proved a complete failure.

The German attack did not catch the Soviet Navy unawares. All the warships and naval detachments were on full combat alert. Despite enemy air superiority, Soviet sailors successfully repelled mass air raids against naval bases in Polyarny, Kronstadt and Sevastopol without losing a single ship or plane during the first day of hostilities. Nor could nazi mines stop Soviet warships from going to sea.

The war against the invaders lasted 1,418 days and nights, and from the very first hours till Germany's surrender, Soviet naval forces were active everywhere in the defence of the USSR. Submarines hunted down and sunk enemy warships and transports, and Navy planes, surface craft and torpedo boats persistently tracked down and fought the enemy both at sea and on land.

Soviet Navy planes and warships attacked German coastal facilities as well. On the second day of the war, Black Sea Fleet planes bombed oil storage tanks in Constanza, Romania. Three days later, a unit of light warships made a daring sortie to Romanian shores and again heavily bombarded these facilities.

During the first days of hostilities, the Danube Flotilla made several troop landings and captured over 75 km of the Danube bank on the Romanian side. To counter the Soviet landings, the Germans had to deploy considerable forces, and this weakened their striking power on the main fronts. The Pinsk Flotilla, too, fought stubbornly and inflicted heavy losses on the enemy on the West Bug River.[1]

Soviet armed forces battled with the enemy along an extended front from the Barents to the Black Sea. On the southern flank, the nazis tried to break through to Odessa, seeking to capture this strategically important port as quickly as possible. They concentrated seventeen divisions and seven brigades, but despite considerable superiority in manpower, tanks, and aviation, failed to capture Odessa at once.

The Black Sea Fleet under Vice-Admiral F. S. Oktyabrsky played an important part in defending Odessa and other major Black Sea ports and in consolidating the southern

[1] S. G. Gorshkov, *op. cit.*, p. 231.

flank of the Soviet Army. Odessa was defended by the Separate Maritime Army and by seamen. The commanding officer of the Odessa Defence District was Rear-Admiral G. V. Zhukov. In mid-August 1941, the Maritime Army had 34,500 men, including two regiments of marines and several detachments of sailors numbering 8,000 men.

During the defence of Odessa, the Black Sea Fleet supported ground troops with artillery fire, landed sailors, and continuously supplied the besieged defenders and civilians with all necessities.

Coastal batteries inflicted heavy losses on the enemy. Here is just one episode. The 412th battery under Captain N. Zinoviev was stationed close to the frontlines. On August 20, 1941, its observation post reported that two enemy infantry battalions were concentrating near Shiuli Farm ready to attack. It was clear that the Germans wanted to capture the battery. Soon after a barrage, both battalions attacked. When they were 3.5 km away, all the battery guns opened fire. The shells weighed almost 100 kg each and, when exploding, inflicted heavy losses on the advancing enemy. The battery had fired 90 shots during ten minutes. Having lost more than 400, the Germans retreated and left sixteen anti-tank guns, nine mortars and several dozen heavy and light machine guns.

The defence of Odessa, in which civilians took an active part, pinned down for two months almost the whole of the Romanian Army and for 73 days halted the advance of the Black Sea flank of nazi Group "South".

On September 30, 1941, in view of a threat to the Crimea and the impossibility of defending the Crimea and Odessa simultaneously, the Soviet Supreme Command decided to evacuate the Odessa District in order to reinforce the Crimean defenders. The Black Sea Fleet completed the evacuation in secret and without losses. Ninety-five thousand troops and civilians, as well as equipment and weapons and almost 100,000 tons of miscellaneous cargo, were taken out of Odessa by sea.

The heroic garrison left Odessa undefeated, and the Maritime Army subsequently played an important role in defending the Crimea. In cooperation with naval units, it stopped the enemy on the Perekop Isthmus and later took part in the defence of Sevastopol.

The defence of Sevastopol, the main base of the Black Sea

Fleet, was a particularly heroic episode in the history of the war. Sevastopol was the key point in the entire defence system of the Crimean coast. The commanding officers were Vice-Admiral F. S. Oktyabrsky, Commander of the Black Sea Fleet, and Major-General I. Y. Petrov, Commander of the Maritime Army, his deputy for ground defence. The Germans counted on capturing Sevastopol on the march. However, they were faced by Soviet marines at the end of October 1941. The marines, supported by naval planes, coastal artillery and warships, halted the enemy on the approaches to Sevastopol. In November and December 1941, the German Command concentrated superior ground forces, aviation and heavy artillery and launched two unsuccessful offensives aimed at crushing the defenders and taking the fortress by storm. In the fierce battles that followed, Soviet soldiers and sailors showed mass heroism, staunchness and selflessness. Infantrymen, artillerymen, tankmen, airmen, sappers, signallers, and civilians—all without exception—fought like heroes.

On November 2, 1941, the crew of coastal battery No. 54, after continuously firing at enemy lines, struck at a column of 200 lorries with nazi infantry and inflicted heavy losses. The Germans responded with fire from three heavy batteries and air raids followed by attacks of an enemy motorised infantry battalion and 300 horsemen. The Soviet artillerymen continued to fight back, but by noon three of the four guns had been damaged. Still, the men continued to repel all enemy attacks with machine-gun fire and grenades. In his last message relayed at 4:40 p.m., the battery commander reported an enemy breakthrough. In response, the Soviet Command sent a mine-sweeper and a coast guard, which saved the 28 surviving artillerymen. During that day the battery managed to destroy 16 enemy tanks and seven lorries loaded with infantry. This was one of the many heroic exploits in the defence of Sevastopol.[1]

Another immortal exploit dates back to November 7, 1941, the anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, when five marines led by Political Instructor Nikolai Filchenkov blocked the way to German tanks advancing on Sevastopol. When the first seven tanks attacked, the marines set three of them on fire and forced the rest to retreat.

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[1] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota,* Moscow, 1974, p. 340.

Several hours later, the Germans attacked again, this time with fifteen tanks. Machine-gunner Vasily Tsybulko was seriously wounded, and so was sailor Ivan Krasnoselsky, who had set two tanks ablaze with incendiary bottles. When there was nothing to fight with, Filchenkov bound himself with grenades and dashed under an oncoming tank, and sailors Daniil Odintsov and Yuri Parshin followed suit. The enemy was halted and then repulsed by newly-arrived reinforcements. The five navymen did their duty to the last and stopped the nazis at the cost of their own lives. The Soviet government posthumously awarded Filchenkov and his four mates the title of Hero of the Soviet Union, and a monument was later erected in their honour at the place of their heroic action.

For three days, seven sailors, all members of the Young Communist League, entrenched in bunker No. 11 repulsed furious nazi attacks on the approaches to Sevastopol. They fought valiantly to the last. The enemy lost hundreds of soldiers and captured the bunker only after all the seven defenders had fallen in battle. The news of this exploit spread all over the country.

In late December 1941, after suffering heavy losses of men and materiel, the nazis had to stop their winter offensive and start a systematic siege of Sevastopol. The failure of the German offensive was largely due to the landings made in Kerch and Feodosia by Sevastopol defenders and the Caucasian Front troops. As a result of these operations, the Kerch Peninsula was liberated, opening a new front, to which the Germans had to transfer three divisions from the environs of Sevastopol making the position of the city's defenders easier.

During the landing in Feodosia, the cruiser *Krasny Kavkaz* did especially well. It approached the port under a barrage of artillery and mortar fire and landed troops on a pier. Twelve shells and eight mines hit the cruiser, setting ablaze its ammunition depot. Ignoring the extreme danger, sailor P. G. Pushkaryov flung the burning shells on deck and put out the fire together with his mates who managed to come to his aid. During the landing operation, the cruiser destroyed four enemy batteries, one armoured train, many fire emplacements, tanks and soldiers. Supported by warships, the task force quickly cleared Feodosia of enemy troops.

In the spring of 1942, the Germans concentrated almost 204,000 officers and men, 450 tanks, 2,000 guns and mortars and 600 planes in the environs of Sevastopol. The Soviet

defenders had 100,000 troops and 400 guns. On May 20, 1942, the nazis started continuous air raids and artillery bombardments, which lasted for eighteen days, and on June 7 launched an offensive along the entire front. The battles continued day and night, and Soviet troops fought to the death for every inch of their native soil. But despite their heroism, their strength was waning, and on June 30 the Germans managed to reach the city. Soviet troops had no more shells and checked the enemy advance by small-arms fire and bayonet attacks. On June 30, 1942, the Soviet Supreme Command ordered the defenders to evacuate Sevastopol. The operation continued till July 4. Some of the defenders succeeded in breaking through to the neighbouring mountains where they joined guerilla units.

Throughout the siege, the Black Sea Fleet supplied Sevastopol with ammunition and reinforcements, equipment and food; it also evacuated the wounded, as well as women and children. From day to day, however, this was becoming increasingly difficult to do; enemy planes hovered in the sky and German long-range artillery bombarded the city. Yet, even under these adverse conditions, not only surface ships and transports, but even submarines continued to supply the defenders.

The defence of Sevastopol was a great exploit. The defenders multiplied the heroic feats of Russian soldiers and sailors who had defended the fortress during the Crimean War of 1853-1856. The whole world followed the courageous struggle of the defenders with admiration. In those days, the British *Daily Herald* wrote that Sevastopol was a name that would forever remain in the hearts of free people and that, come what may, Soviet troops deserved the gratitude of the civilised world.

The heroic defence of Sevastopol had important military and political significance. For eight long months, the defenders had pinned down a 300,000-strong enemy force, and did not allow the Germans to take part in the offensive in the south of the Soviet Union. Moreover, they did not allow the German armies in the south to use the sea route to the Sea of Azov and to reach the ports of the North Caucasus. The nazi invaders lost over 300,000 men at Sevastopol.

In severe polar conditions, the Northern Fleet under Rear-Admiral A. G. Golovko fought the enemy on the northern

flank of the Soviet-German front. From the very start, it had to fight crack alpine nazi troops who sought to capture the ice-free port of Murmansk, and Polyarnoye, the main Soviet naval base in the north, and to cut the Murmansk-Leningrad railway. In this sector, the Red Army had only three infantry divisions. Therefore, all the naval forces available for use on land were sent to support the ground troops. In addition, the Red Army was backed by Navy planes, warships, and marines.

The following episode shows the valour of the sailors of the Northern Fleet. In July 1941, the Germans strove at all costs to capture an important height defended by a small group of marines under Senior Sergeant V. P. Kislyakov. Enemy attacks followed one after another, but were all repulsed. When the ammunition had run out, Kislyakov ordered his men to withdraw, but himself remained to cover the retreat. He skilfully changed positions and for a whole hour courageously beat back the nazis. When reinforcements arrived they found more than one hundred enemy dead. The valiant YCLer[1] Kislyakov was the first in the Northern Fleet to be awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

The active and resolute actions of Soviet ground troops and sailors in the north forced the nazis on the defensive in the West Litsa River valley 35-40 km from Murmansk. After that the Germans failed to make any further advance.

Failing to capture Murmansk, the German Command directed its main efforts at disrupting Soviet sea communications in the north. In the beginning of 1942, the Germans concentrated in northern Norway a large group of warships, 20-25 submarines and the 5th Air Fleet (about 500 planes). From that time on, the Soviet Northern Fleet was chiefly busy defending its communications in the Barents, White and Kara seas. By the end of 1942, large Soviet and Allied (US and British) naval and air forces had been concentrated on these routes to ensure the continuous movement of convoys.

At the same time, the Northern Fleet started operations aimed at cutting off nazi communications along the coastline of northern Norway which the Germans used for supplying their troops in the Polar region and for transporting strategic materials, such as nickel and iron ore, and molybdenum.

[1] Member of the Young Communist League.

Soviet submarines, planes and torpedo boats systematically hunted down and sunk enemy warships and transports. The following directive signed by Hitler in September 1941 showed the extent of Soviet blows: "Enemy interference with our naval communications along the Polar coast has further reduced the chances of the alpine corps reaching Murmansk this year." [1]

The Germans had to escort their ships already by the end of July 1941. The nazis stationed patrol vessels and strengthened their anti-submarine defences in the vicinity of naval bases, ports and fiords.

The shock force of the Soviet Northern Fleet consisted of a submarine brigade operating over most of the route, including the fiords and inlets along the northern coast of Norway frequented by enemy convoys. Already on the second day of hostilities, the submarine *Sch-401* under Senior Lieutenant A. Y. Moiseyev penetrated into the Vårdö inlet and torpedoed a moored enemy transport. In mid-July 1941, another Soviet submarine, *Sch-402*, under Lieutenant-Commander N. G. Stolbov penetrated into the Hanningvög inlet and attacked an anchored transport. In 1941-1942, Soviet submarines operating in the north sunk a total of 77 enemy transports and 27 warships. They attacked them both with torpedoes and gun-fire. For instance, on December 3, 1941, the submarine *K-3* under Captain 3rd Rank K. I. Molofeyev discovered an enemy convoy including a transport and three escort ships, namely a coast guard and two torpedo boats. *K-3* attacked and sunk the transport and was pursued and depth-charged by the three warships. The submarine surfaced and engaged them in an artillery duel with the result that the coast guard and one torpedo boat were sunk, while the other torpedo boat beat hasty retreat. The Northern Fleet successfully protected Soviet exterior and interior sea communications. The nazis failed to stop Soviet navigation in the Arctic, though they did their best.

The Baltic Fleet under Vice-Admiral V. F. Tributs operated under very difficult conditions. From the very outset, the seamen engaged the nazi invaders at sea, on land, and in the air. Together with ground forces, they staunchly

[1] *Hitlers Weisungen für die Kriegführung: 1939-1945. Dokumente des OKW*, Frankfurt am Main, 1962, S. 154.

defended the naval bases in Liepaja (Libau) and Tallinn, the Moonsund Islands and Hangö Peninsula, blocked the way into the Gulf of Finland, and protected the distant sea approaches to Leningrad.

The defence of Liepaja was a vivid page in the history of the war. Liepaja is less than 100 km from the frontier, and from the very start was attacked by German ground troops, which outnumbered two to one the garrison reinforced by a workers' volunteer unit. However, the nazis failed to capture the city by storm, and on the third day of the war detoured it. The defending 67th Infantry Division, marines and workers' detachments continued to fight for every house, for every inch of Soviet soil. In Liepaja, German and Soviet marines met in combat for the first time. The nazis were routed and did not take part in subsequent operations. In stubborn battles with superior enemy forces, the defenders of Liepaja for five days checked the advance of the maritime nazi flank. This allowed the Soviet Command to evacuate six submarines and eight transports elsewhere. When the fighting for Liepaja was at its height, a sailor detachment under Petty Officer N.I. Smirnov swiftly counter-attacked the nazis and broke through their lines to help Soviet troops escape from the encircled city.

The heroic defence of Tallinn, the main base of the Soviet Baltic Fleet, began in late August 1941. The garrison was under the command of the Baltic Fleet War Council, and all the forces stationed around the city were mustered for its defence, viz. the 10th Infantry Corps, warships, coastal artillery, AA guns, and naval planes. On August 19, the Germans launched a fierce attack. For several days, intense fighting continued on the outskirts of the city. Infantry, marines, artillery, armoured trains and AA batteries all staunchly held out. At times Soviet anti-aircraft batteries were 2-3 kilometers in front of the infantry, and checked the nazi advance by firing at close range.

Soviet naval guns and coastal batteries started pounding the Germans as soon as they were within reach. The nazis suffered heavy losses, but continued to attack. On the night of August 27, they closed in and began to bombard the Soviet warships in the harbour. All possibilities for further defending Tallinn were exhausted, and the warships evacuated the infantry corps, marines, and the Navy's land forces to Kronstadt. The breakthrough was successfully completed, in spite of dense mine barrages, heavy artillery fire, and constant attacks by enemy planes and torpedo boats. The nucleus of the fleet was saved and subsequently played an important role in the defence of Leningrad.

The defenders of Tallinn pinned down the bulk of the German 18th Army and for two weeks checked the advance of superior enemy forces to Leningrad, inflicting heavy losses.

In the difficult days of August 1941, when the enemy broke through to the Gulf of Finland, Soviet Navy planes were the first to strike at Berlin. On the night of August 7, 1941, a group of bombers under Colonel Y.N. Preobrazhensky made a surprise attack on the nazi capital thus retaliating for the bombing of Moscow and other Soviet cities. From August 8 to September 4, 1941, the Navy and long-range Army bombers made nine raids on Berlin from bases on the Moonsunds.

After the evacuation of Tallinn, the Moonsunds and Hangö garrisons were stranded deep behind enemy lines. But they held the strongholds and prevented enemy warships from penetrating into the Gulf of Finland. The Moonsund Archipelago was an important base not only for Soviet submarines, but also for the Navy planes raiding Berlin. The garrison included an infantry brigade and coast guards totalling 24,000 officers and men. The German Command did everything to capture the islands and Hangö Peninsula and win complete supremacy in the Baltic. The Germans concentrated over 50,000 troops for the Moonsund landing operation, which was backed by three cruisers and six destroyers. Stubborn fighting began on September 7, 1941, and continued for over six weeks. Soviet troops defended their positions, which the Germans subjected to massive air raids and artillery fire. On some days, the defenders made dozens of counter-attacks, forcing the enemy to retreat to their starting positions. On October 4, 1941, the following wireless message came from Sarema Island: "Transmission finished. Am going into action, my last action." When asked about the situation, the operator replied: "Farewell, farewell...."

The defenders of the other islands also fought to the end. For ten days, Soviet troops fought fierce defensive battles on Khiuma Island. On the order of the Fleet Command all Soviet troops left the Moonsunds on October 19-22. More than 500 defenders were evacuated to Hangö, and some

officers and men sailed to Latvia to continue the struggle in guerilla detachments.[1]

During the most tense days of the defence of Leningrad, the Moonsunds garrison diverted two nazi divisions and support units and considerable air and naval forces, and inflicted heavy losses. In the course of the fighting, the Germans lost over 26, 000 officers and men, more than 20 naval vessels, and 41 planes.

After occupying the Moonsunds, the nazis still had no free access to the Gulf of Finland: the entrance was defended by a Soviet naval base on Hangö Peninsula. From the very first days of the hostilities, the defenders of Hangö, consisting of 25,000 men under Lieutenant-General S. I. Kabanov, pinned down considerable Finnish land and sea forces; this reduced enemy activity at the northern approaches to Leningrad and considerably hampered Finnish sea communications with nazi Germany.

The fighting began at the end of June and continued till December 1941. The defenders beat back repeated enemy attempts to capture the base. The heroes of Hangö not only defended the peninsula, but made sorties themselves. They cut enemy sea communications, landed task forces, counter-attacked, and even recaptured 19 neighbouring islands.

By the beginning of winter, the situation became increasingly unfavourable. Realising that delivery of supplies to Hangö in wintertime would be exceedingly difficult and that the defence of Leningrad required maximum concentration of forces, the Soviet Supreme Command decided to evacuate the base. By the beginning of December, when the Gulf of Finland was still partly free of ice, the 22,000-strong garrison was withdrawn to Kronstadt to subsequently join the defenders of Leningrad.

By the end of 1941, the Baltic Fleet lost all its advance posts and had to concentrate its forces at Kronstadt and Leningrad. Only submarines could operate in the Baltic and their chief task was to harass German communications. Despite incredibly hard conditions, Soviet submarines in 1942 broke through German anti-submarine barrages in the Gulf of Finland and sunk dozens of enemy transports in the Baltic. Submarine *Sch-317* under Lieutenant-Commander N. Mokhov sent five enemy transports to the bottom during just one mission. In 1942, submarine L-3 under Captain 3rd Rank P. D. Grishchenko torpedoed and mined eight enemy transports.

Throughout the war, Baltic Fleet surface vessels and coastal artillery served as Leningrad's protective shield. Small warships, planes and shore batteries helped retain Soviet naval supremacy in the eastern part of the Gulf of Finland and protect the maritime flanks of Soviet land troops and Leningrad itself from sea attacks.

The Ladoga Flotilla rendered major assistance to Leningrad. In 1941, it safeguarded the life-line which connected the beleaguered city to the rest of the country, ferried supplies and reinforcements, and evacuated industrial facilities and civilians. Despite stubborn nazi attempts to paralyse this, the sole artery to the besieged city, and completely halt all supplies, transportation by water in summer and over a temporary ice road in winter continued throughout 1942. As a result, Leningrad received foodstuffs, its civilian population (children first of all) was at least in part evacuated, and military supplies were stepped up.

The Ladoga Flotilla helped the Leningraders to hold out during the most severe days of the siege and saved thousands of people from starvation. Almost 1,000,000 people and nearly 1,500,000 tons of cargo were ferried across the lake from the middle of 1941 to the end of 1943.

Faithful to the fighting and revolutionary traditions of the Soviet Navy, the sailors attacked the Germans, showing heroism and contempt for death. The Baltic Fleet sent more than 110,000 sailors, petty officers and officers to reinforce the Army units. At Leningrad, the marines fought in virtually every ground division. The defence of the approaches to Leningrad relied on the striking power of long-range naval artillery and the indomitable stubbornness and irresistible attacks of the marines.

3. The Battles of Stalingrad and the Caucasus

In the summer of 1942, the Germans concentrated their main forces in the south and began an offensive aimed at breaking through to the fertile Don, Kuban and Lower

[1] *Istoriya vtoroi mirovoi voiny 1939-1945*, Vol. 4, p. 70.

Volga areas and the Caucasian oil fields. The nazi leadership reckoned that in case of success they would be able to draw Turkey and Japan into the war against the USSR.

In mid-July 1942, the Germans reached the Don creating a real threat of a breakthrough to the Volga and the Caucasus. This was the beginning of the battles of Stalingrad and the Caucasus.

In the second half of August, the Germans, after fierce fighting, reached Stalingrad, and in mid-September penetrated into the city. Soviet troops defended every block and house and halted the enemy on the banks of the Volga. On November 19, 1942, they launched a counter-offensive to encircle and rout the huge German force. The nazis lost 140,000 officers and men, and 91,000 enemy troops (including more than 2,500 officers and 24 generals) were taken prisoner.

Fierce fighting at the approaches to and in Stalingrad continued for two hundred days and nights. The nazis spared neither men, tanks, nor planes to capture the stronghold on the Volga. But the heroic defenders not only repelled their furious onslaught, but completely crushed Hitler's crack divisions.

In the battle of Stalingrad, the Volga Flotilla and marines fought together with ground troops. Throughout the entire defensive operation, flotilla units transported troops and materials, evacuated the wounded, and supported Soviet ground forces with artillery fire under continuous nazi bombardment from land and air. They crossed the Volga 35,400 times under heavy enemy fire to ferry over 120,000 men and equipment and munitions.

Armoured boats and armed convoys accompanied and protected river transports on the Volga, and the boat anti-aircraft gunners showed exceptional heroism during all these actions. To cite just one example, the *Sokrat*, when convoying a group of barges, repelled 48 enemy air attacks, shot down three bombers, and delivered the cargo safely to its destination.

In assessing the role of the Volga Flotilla in the battle of Stalingrad, Marshal V. I. Chuikov, Commander of the 62nd Army, which took direct part in the defence of the city, wrote in his memoirs: "I shall speak briefly about the role and exploits of the flotilla seamen. If they had not been there, the 62nd Army might have perished without ammunition and food, and would not have fulfilled its task."[1]

In addition to Volga marines, over 100,000 marines from other fleets and flotillas also took part in the defence of Stalingrad. The Northern and Baltic fleets formed the 66th Marine Brigade and the 154th and 92nd Infantry brigades. They fought heroically, as did many other sailors who reinforced infantry units.

In December 1942, 20,000 seamen from the Pacific Fleet and the Amur Flotilla joined the 2nd Guards Army which fought at Kotelnikovo against a large group of enemy forces trying to relieve the surrounded 6th German Army.[2]

The victory at Stalingrad was a major turning-point in the Great Patriotic War and World War II. Nazi Germany suffered irretrievable losses. From July 17, 1942 to February 2, 1943, during their offensive and defensive operations at Stalingrad, the nazis and their allies lost 25 per cent of all their forces on the Soviet-German front. Nearly 1,500,000 enemy officers and men were killed, wounded and taken prisoner. Later, General Siegfried Westphal wrote: "The disaster at Stalingrad profoundly shocked the German people and armed forces alike.... Never before in Germany's history had so large a body of troops come to so dreadful an end."[3]

The rout of the Germans at Stalingrad developed into a large Soviet offensive in the winter of 1942-1943, and in some places the enemy was pushed back by as much as 600-700 km. At the same time, the siege of Leningrad was raised. The strategic initiative had passed over to the Soviet Supreme Command.

The nazi defeat severely rocked Germany's international positions. After Stalingrad, her relations with her allies noticeably worsened, and despite Hitler's demands that they increase their efforts on the Eastern Front, the latter showed no particular desire to do so in a war which promised no success. The ruling circles of Italy, Finland and Hungary began to contemplate withdrawing from the war, and Japan and Turkey declined to side with Germany. Under the influence of Soviet victories, the anti-fascist and national liberation struggles in the nazi-occupied countries of Europe

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[1] V. I. Chuikov, *Nachalo puti* (The Beginning of the Way), Moscow, 1962, p. 182 (in Russian).

[2] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota,* pp. 447-49.

[3] Siegfried Westphal, *The Fatal Decisions,* London, 1965, p. 184.

grew stronger, and resistance against the regimes in Germany and other fascist-bloc countries began to mount.

Although the battle for the Caucasus initially developed unfavourably for the Soviet Army, it eventually ended in a major nazi defeat. Due to their superiority in manpower and equipment, especially in tanks and aviation, the Germans in late autumn 1942 in some places even reached the Greater Caucasus Range and captured part of the Black Sea coast. But, contrary to their strategic plans, they failed to break through to Transcaucasia. In the course of fierce fighting, they suffered major losses and were forced to go on the defensive.

In the early 1943, Soviet troops, following on the success at Stalingrad, took the offensive in order to crush the nazi invaders in the Caucasus. As a result, by early spring 1943, the Caucasus was almost completely liberated. On October 9, 1943, the Taman Peninsula, the last enemy stronghold in the area, was completely cleared of the enemy.

In the battle for the Caucasus, the Black Sea Fleet and the Azov and Caspian flotillas fought in close cooperation with land forces. The seamen assisted Soviet troops in defending the coastline and protecting the Army flanks. They prevented enemy landings and reinforcements, covered regroupings, transportation of troops and equipment, and the evacuation of wounded and materiel, and actively engaged the enemy land and naval forces.

According to the British historian Brian Tunstall, "In the present war Russia's naval strategy has not only been planned and executed with sound judgement, but has contributed far more to the success of the Red Army than is usually supposed. In the Black Sea it has successfully prevented a sea-borne invasion of the Caucasus, and at the same time has harried the enemy's communications along the Bulgarian and Rumanian coasts with great severity.... The Red Fleet's achievement is extraordinary, since despite the loss of Odessa and Nikolaev and now Sevastopol, it has not only held its command of the Black Sea, but has done so in the face of constant attacks from enemy shore-based aircraft." [1]

From the outset of the Battle of the Caucasus, the Azov

[1] Brian Tunstall, *World War at Sea,* London, 1942, p. 163.

Flotilla under Rear-Admiral S. G. Gorshkov [1] performed important tasks as a constituent part of the Black Sea Fleet. Starting from late July 1942, it defended the east coast of the Sea of Azov for three weeks and then, together with other Black Sea Fleet units, helped to defend the Taman Peninsula. In the beginning of September, Taman was evacuated on the order of the Soviet Command, but the active operations of the Azov Flotilla on the northeastern approaches to Taman played an important role in thwarting nazi plans to break through to Novorossiisk and the Caucasus.

The Soviet Command attached great significance to the defence of Novorossiisk, since the enemy drive along the Black Sea coast could be successfully checked from there. Novorossiisk was also the biggest port in the North Caucasus.

In mid-August 1942, taking into account the experience gained during the defence of Odessa and Sevastopol, the Soviet Command formed the Novorossiisk Defence District, which in addition to the 47th Army and one division of the 56th Army included units of the Black Sea Fleet and the Azov Flotilla. The commander of the district was Major-General A. A. Grechko (later Marshal of the Soviet Union and the USSR Minister of Defence), and his deputy was Rear-Admiral S. G. Gorshkov, Commander-in-Chief, Azov Flotilla. The Black Sea Fleet supported the Novorossiisk Defence District from sea and air, prevented enemy landings, transported troops, supplied and reinforced marines, and provided communications with the North Caucasian Front.

Fighting for Novorossiisk continued from August 19 to September 26, 1942. The enemy managed to capture the greater part of the city, but they could not use it as a port and naval base, since Soviet forces still held the eastern shore of Tsemesskaya Bay, which was fully exposed to artillery fire. Thus, the enemy drive along the shore was halted.

The nazis also failed to capture Tuapse, another maritime city on their way to the Caucasus. Two brigades of marines of the Black Sea Fleet numbering 10,000 took part in the fighting together with the 47th Army. In October 1942, when the sector was threatened by an enemy breakthrough to the sea, Soviet warships within the shortest possible time trans-

[1] Now Admiral of the Fleet and Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Navy.

ported three infantry brigades and an alpine division totalling 70,000 men from Poti to Tuapse. These troops counter-attacked the Germans and halted their advance. Thus, all enemy attempts to break through to Transcaucasia along the Black Sea coast were foiled by joint Soviet land and sea operations.

The Caspian Flotilla helped the Red Army crush the Germans in the North Caucasus. From the end of 1942, when nazi forces had actually cut the land routes connecting Transcaucasia with the rest of the country, all Soviet troops, equipment and other supplies, as well as strategically important oil products from Baku, were transported exclusively by sea. In August 1942 alone, the Caspian Flotilla transferred two infantry corps from Astrakhan to Makhachkala without any losses, and in September 1942 a cavalry corps from Krasnovodsk to Makhachkala. These troops first helped halt the Germans, and then played an important role in a subsequent counter-offensive of the Northern Group, Transcaucasian Front.[1]

The fierce fighting in and around Novorossiisk was a major chapter in the battle for the Caucasus. In early February 1943, a sea-borne landing force of some 900 marines under Major T. L. Kunikov captured a small beachhead in the city suburbs. For several nights, Black Sea Fleet units landed two more brigades of marines, an infantry brigade, artillery, anti-tank guns, and other units, which were subsequently reinforced with four infantry brigades of the 18th Army. For almost seven months, Soviet forces held the beachhead, which went down in history as the Little Land. The German Command strove at all costs to wipe out the Soviet task force: groups of 40-60 enemy planes almost incessantly bombed the beachhead, on some days making as many as 1,000 raids, and enemy ground attacks followed one after another, but Soviet troops courageously repelled them all. The success of the task force was largely aided by Soviet naval units, which delivered reinforcements and equipment and, together with shore batteries, supported the men on the beachhead with artillery fire.

Several times, despite continuous enemy air raids and artillery bombardment, the Little Land was inspected by Colonel Leonid Brezhnev (now General Secretary of the CC CPSU and Chairman of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet), Chief of Political Department, 18th Army. His meetings and conversations with the officers and men helped to raise their morale and belief in victory. In his recent book *Malaya Zemlya* (The Little Land), Leonid Brezhnev vividly describes the landing and subsequent actions on the beachhead.

In September 1943, Novorossiisk, which the nazis had turned into a powerful fortress, was captured by Soviet troops by storm; the operation was conducted both from land and sea, and the landing party defending the Little Land took active part. Novorossiisk was liberated by different components of the Army and Navy acting in conjunction. The success was largely due to a bold landing in the port of Novorossiisk by 6,000 men, two-thirds of whom were sailors. In early October, exploiting the success at Novorossiisk, the North Caucasian Front together with the Black Sea Fleet and the Azov Flotilla cleared Taman Peninsula of enemy troops to bring the battle of the Caucasus to a victorious end.

The liberation of Novorossiisk and the ports of the Taman Peninsula provided the Black Sea Fleet with significantly better facilities for bases and created favourable conditions for striking at the nazis in the Crimea from the sea via the Straits of Kerch.

4. Heading for Victory

The crushing blows inflicted by Soviet forces on the Germans in 1943 at Stalingrad, Kursk, in the Ukraine and other areas shattered nazi hopes of retrieving the strategic initiative. The USSR entered the final stage of the war, during which the Soviet Army completed several major offensive operations and routed the Wehrmacht's main forces.

During that period, one of the Navy's major tasks was to assist the maritime groups and armies as the front was pushed forward. However, now that the Soviet Army had taken the offensive, the danger of enemy sea attacks against its flanks was less acute and enemy landings less likely. In these conditions, the tactical aspects of this task were no longer defensive; on the other hand, in most cases, it was

[1] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota*, p. 416.

more difficult to retake than to defend fortified cities and towns.

In January-February 1944, Soviet forces routed the Germans at Leningrad. The Baltic Fleet and the Ladoga and Onega flotillas took part in the operation together with the Leningrad and Volkhov fronts. In the preparatory stages, the fleet transferred the 2nd Shock Army to the Maritime (Oranienbaum) beachhead held by Soviet troops on the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland not far from Kronstadt. A total of more than 50,000 troops, 211 tanks and 670 guns were transferred to the beachhead. The 2nd Shock Army, in close cooperation with Soviet forces advancing from Leningrad, encircled and wiped out a large body of enemy troops. The success of the operation was ensured by massive naval artillery fire and air attacks.

In the 1944 summer offensive for the liberation of the Karelian Isthmus and South Karelia, the Baltic Fleet landed a task force on islands in the Gulf of Vyborg and blocked the entrance to enemy warships in order to protect the Soviet flank. Soon after, the Ladoga Flotilla landed two brigades of marines behind enemy lines giving major support to advancing Soviet infantry units. As a result, the Germans operating in the vicinity of Lake Ladoga were threatened with encirclement.

At the same time, Soviet warships and aircraft fought fierce battles with nazi submarines operating in the Gulf of Finland. In striving to step up nazi U-boat activities, Admiral Dönitz, ordered the transfer of ten additional submarines to the area. Fierce encounters took place almost every day, but one of them was especially significant for future naval operations against the nazis. On July 30, 1944, the Soviet submarine chaser *MO-103* under Senior Lieutenant A. P. Kolenko depth-charged and sunk the German submarine *U-250*. However, Soviet divers refloated it and brought it to Kronstadt. The trophy proved very valuable, since it was equipped with the two most up-to-date T-5 torpedoes with acoustic homing devices. The T-5, called *Zaunkönig*, was examined by Soviet specialists who revealed its secret, and informed the British Admiralty, since the British Navy was suffering heavy losses at the hands of German U-boats. Stalin granted Churchill permission for British experts to examine the U-boat and torpedo, which allowed the Allies to take effective counter-measures.

From the end of 1944, the main task of the Baltic Fleet was to harass German communications in the Baltic. At first, all the actions were directed against transports carrying raw materials from Sweden, and then against troop reinforcements for isolated enemy groups on the coast. During four months of 1945 alone, Soviet submarines sank 26 enemy transports. On January 30, submarine *C-13* under Captain 3rd Rank A. I. Marinesko attacked and sank the heavily protected *Wilhelm Gustloff* near Danzig. Ten days later the submarine torpedoed the *General Steuben*. Both transports carried nearly 10,000 nazi servicemen, including 1,300 officers; most of them were submariners or so-called "Dönitz aces" who were being evacuated from ports which the Red Army was approaching in a joint drive with the Baltic Fleet.

After the enemy had been ousted from the Taman Peninsula, the Black Sea Fleet and Soviet land forces liberated the Crimea and the northwest coast of the Black Sea, including Odessa.

In the Odessa operation of March 28-April 14, 1944, Soviet warships and Navy planes prevented the enemy from transporting supplies between Odessa and the Crimea and between Odessa and Romanian ports. Only a few warships took part, but they inflicted considerable losses on the enemy. Sixteen high-speed landing barges, four transports, twelve coast guards and torpedo boats, and other nazi vessels were sunk at sea and in the northern ports of the Black Sea.[1]

The beginning of the operation was marked by an outstanding feat. A party of 55 marines and 12 sappers under Senior Lieutenant K. F. Olshansky, all volunteers, landed secretly behind enemy lines in the commercial port of Nikolayev and occupied several buildings. They wanted to distract the Germans so as to facilitate the liberation of Nikolayev and prevent them from driving population to Germany and plundering the city. For two days the landing party fought with nearly a whole enemy regiment, and despite the loss of 55 troops, they drove back 17 attacks and held the area till reinforcements arrived. The enemy lost 700 officers and men, two tanks and four guns.

In the Odessa operation, Soviet forces crushed the enemy troops in the city and liberated the entire northwestern sector

[1] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota*, p. 378.

of the Black Sea coast, including the ports of Odessa, Ochakov, Kherson and Nikolayev. After that, the Black Sea Fleet was able to shift its light vessels and planes to bases located in the northwestern part of the Black Sea, and the Germans were forced to use the Romanian ports of Constanza and Sulina for maintaining their communications with the Crimea, which was now cut off from the mainland and threatened with isolation from the sea.

On April 8, 1944, Soviet forces started the liberation of the Crimea. They broke through strong German defences at Kerch and Perekop and fought their way along the sea coast from the east and directly from the north. On May 9, after a four-day battle, they took Sevastopol by storm to completely oust the invaders from the peninsula. The remnants of nazi forces fled to Cape Khersones, where they surrendered on May 12.

In the Crimean operation, the Black Sea Fleet protected the coastline and the maritime flanks of the advancing Soviet armies with coastal and naval artillery fire and systematically attacked German communications. It blockaded Sevastopol from the sea and prevented the enemy from evacuating its forces, which by that time held only a narrow strip of land on the coast. The submarine *A-5* under Lieutenant-Commander V. I. Matveyev made an exceptionally good showing when it sunk the transport *Durostor* and the schooner *Seifert*. Another submarine *Sch-201* under Captain 3rd Rank P. I. Paramoshkin sank the transport *Geiserix* and a minesweeper, and also damaged a landing barge, all this during just one mission.

During only ten days of the German evacuation from the Crimea, i.e., from May 3 to 13, Soviet submarines, torpedo boats and Navy planes sank over one hundred enemy vessels with 42,000 officers and men on board. In subsequent actions, the Black Sea Fleet in cooperation with land forces cut German evacuation routes and landed several parties of marines to hasten the liberation of the southern regions of the USSR, and also of Romania and Bulgaria.

In 1944, the Soviet Army launched another offensive on the northern flank of the Soviet-German front. In the autumn of 1944, the Karelian Front in cooperation with the Northern Fleet cleared the Arctic region and the northern areas of Norway of nazi forces.

The Northern Fleet was active both at sea and on land. At

sea, it sank enemy transports and warships and prevented them from evacuating their troops. In the maritime regions, two brigades of marines supported by warships and coastal artillery broke through German defences on Sredny Peninsula and began pursuing the enemy. At the same time, the fleet landed one brigade of marines in Malaya Volokovaya Bay to outflank a fortified German position. Sensing its encirclement, the enemy began a hasty retreat. This operation was followed up by a Soviet marine landing in Port Linaehamari, a very convenient German naval base on the west coast of Pechenegskaya Bay. Despite furious enemy resistance, the marines broke through a curtain of deadly fire and captured the base. In mid-October 1944, Karelian Front troops and Soviet naval units captured Petsamo and continued their drive along the coast. Three more marine landings were made in the course of the offensive.

At the same time, the Northern Fleet continued to transport troops and equipment inside and outside Soviet waters in spite of German U-boats, which still presented a major threat. The nazi fleet could not prevent American and British supplies from reaching the USSR via the North Atlantic and the Barents Sea. In the course of the war, 41 allied convoys (738 transports) safely reached Russian shores, and 36 (726 transports) left the USSR.[1] The Northern Fleet also conducted successful operations against German sea communications, preventing the Germans from delivering supplies to their troops and taking out nickel and iron ore from Kirkenes and Petsamo. In the summer of 1944, Soviet submarines and torpedo boats supported by aircraft destroyed a big German convoy in the Barents Sea. Eight Soviet torpedo boats under the broad pendant of flotilla commander Captain 2nd Rank V. N. Alexeyev discovered the enemy ships in Varangerfjorden and attacked them from behind a smoke screen. Three German transports and several warships were sunk. The Soviet flotilla lost one torpedo boat. During eighteen months of combat in Arctic waters, the medium-class submarine *C-56* under Captain 2nd Rank G. I. Shchedrin made 12 torpedo attacks to sink nine enemy warships and transports and damage four other vessels. During the war, the Northern Fleet sank a total of more than 400

[1] *Boyevoi put Sovetskogo Voyenno-Morskogo Flota*, p. 206.

enemy transports (more than 1,000,000 tons displacement).[1] During the war years, the fleet was reinforced by leader *Baku*, destroyers *Razyaryonny* and *Razumny*, and by five submarines, all of which sailed from Vladivostok to Polyarnoye after sailing 17,000 miles via nine seas of two oceans.[2]

The Azov, Ladoga, Onega, White Sea, Volga, Danube and other flotillas achieved major successes in giving direct support to land forces both in defensive and offensive operations.

The White Sea Flotilla successfully defended communications in the Arctic and protected ships and convoys along the Northern Sea Route. It also defended bases and ports, and throughout the war ensured favourable conditions for Soviet forces operating in the southeastern sector of the Barents Sea, and in the White and Kara seas.

During the final stage of the war, the Danube Flotilla fought its way 2,000 km up the Danube to take part in the liberation of six European countries and three capitals, Belgrade, Budapest and Vienna. During the war, flotilla units transported a total of 250 divisions along and across the Danube.[3] The Danube Flotilla landed task forces and supported ground troops with artillery fire. Its last actions were in Austria, and after the war it performed mine-sweeping operations on the Danube.

In 1943, the Dnieper Flotilla was revived and took part jointly with land forces in routing the nazis in the Ukraine, Byelorussia and Poland. After a difficult passage along the Vistula, the Bromberg Canal, and the Noteć and Warta rivers, the flotilla fought along the approaches to Berlin and stormed the Nazi capital together with land forces. Warships helped ground troops cross the Oder and Spree; protected river crossings from enemy attacks and mines; and destroyed German fortifications and weapon emplacements.

The Berlin operation was the culminating point of a severe and bloody war imposed on the Soviet people by the nazi invaders. In this major operation, Soviet forces routed the

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 230.

[2] During the war against nazi Germany and her allies, the Soviet Pacific Fleet protected the coastal frontiers of the USSR in the Far East. It was also a major strategic reserve of the Soviet Supreme Command for supplying the battlefront with well-trained units and marines. Almost 100,000 sailors from the Pacific Fleet fought against the nazi invaders on land.

[3] S. G. Gorshkov, *op, cit.*, p. 240.

1,000,000-strong German Army. On May 8, 1945, the German High Command signed an act of unconditional surrender in Karlshof, a suburb of Berlin. This brought to an inglorious end Hitler's war against democracy, an adventure which cost the world millions of lives.

The Soviet Armed Forces not only defended the gains of the Soviet people, but helped many European nations free themselves from the nazi yoke, and delivered mankind from the threat of nazi slavery. The German people, too, were freed from nazi tyranny.

The victory over nazi Germany was achieved by the joint efforts of the countries of the anti-Hitler coalition. In the course of the war, Anglo-American forces dealt the Germans severe blows; allied Polish, Czechoslovak and Yugoslav troops contributed to the victory, as did Bulgarian and Romanian troops joining the anti-nazi fight at the concluding stage. The widespread Resistance movement in nazi-occupied countries played an important role, too. Yet, the USSR's contribution was foremost and decisive. Throughout the war, Soviet troops had been in combat against the bulk of Germany's elite forces, annihilating and taking prisoner 607 divisions, 506 of them German. By contrast, the Allies crushed 176 enemy divisions in Western Europe, North Africa and Italy. Seventy-five per cent of the Luftwaffe and the majority of tanks and artillery were destroyed on the Soviet-German front, where the nazis also lost more than 2,500 warships and transports. In World War II, Germany lost 13,600,000 men, of whom 10,000,000 were killed, wounded and taken prisoner on the Eastern Front.

5. In the Far East

The rout of nazi Germany brought peace to war-ravaged Europe. Yet, the flames of conflict still raged in the Far East and the Pacific, where Japan, Germany's ally, continued to fight against the United States, Britain, and other countries. Naturally, the USSR could not feel itself secure while hostilities continued.

Japan was a member of the anti-Soviet Axis; throughout the war, the Japanese imperialists had helped Germany in violation of the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact. Japan's General Staff supplied the German High Command with secret information about the size, disposition and equipment of

Soviet Army units and reserves in the Far East, and other military intelligence.

As a matter of fact, Japan herself had been preparing to attack the USSR, and the Japanese General Staff had a comprehensive war plan against the Soviet Union. However, Hitler's defeat at Moscow and Stalingrad had cooled down Japan's belligerence, although she still regarded the USSR as a major objective. The threat of a Japanese assault compelled the USSR to keep at least 40 divisions in the Far East throughout the war when they could have been usefully employed in the West to speed up Hitler's defeat.

In the course of the Soviet-German war the Japanese persistently hampered Soviet navigation in the Far East and illegally detained and even sunk Soviet vessels. From summer 1941 to the end of 1944, the Japanese Navy had arrested 178 Soviet merchant ships. The Japanese Army continued its provocations on Soviet frontiers. In 1944 alone, it violated them 144 times and fired at Soviet territory 39 times.

The necessity to end the war in the Far East as quickly as possible was dictated not only by the interests of the USSR, but by those of the peoples of the Far East and Southeast Asia, who for decades had been in constant fear of plunder by the Japanese militarists. On April 5, 1945, the USSR denounced its Neutrality Pact with Japan, but this did not sober the Japanese government, which remained a loyal member of the Axis until the last day of the Third Reich.

After the defeat of nazi Germany, the strategic situation in the Far East remained complex. By that time, American and British forces had destroyed the bulk of Japan's Navy in the Pacific and had taken up positions close to Japan herself. However, Tokyo had no intention to surrender. Despite all the losses that the Japanese had suffered in aircraft and warships they still possessed a considerable military potential. They had a 5,000,000-strong army, 10,000 planes in their Air Force and 500 warships in their Navy. The crack Kwantung Army was stationed along the Soviet frontier.

At that time, the United States and Britain correctly recognised that without Soviet participation the war against Japan would last at least another two years and would entail heavy losses. For that reason, the Americans and British, first in Teheran in 1943 and then in Yalta in February 1945, insisted that the USSR join the war against Japan.

The USSR pledged to enter the war two or three months after Germany's surrender. In taking this decision, the Soviet Union pursued the righteous and noble aims of speedily eliminating the last hotbed of war and the constant threat of Japanese attack on its territory, to return South Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands and to assist the peoples of China, Korea and other Asian countries in their struggle for national independence.

When the Soviet offensive began, the Japanese land forces in Manchuria, Korea, South Sakhalin and the Kurils numbered 1,200,000 men armed with 1,200 tanks, 5,400 guns and nearly 1,800 warplanes. The bulk of these forces were formed by the Kwantung Army in Northeast China, an area which Japan had turned into a powerful strategic springboard. For many years, she had built fortified districts along Soviet and Mongolian frontiers to safeguard all the major approaches into Manchuria; at the same time, these districts were to serve as starting points for attacking the USSR.

By the beginning of the campaign in the Far East, the Soviet Army had over 1,500,000 troops armed with 26,000 guns and mortars, over 5,500 tanks and self-propelled guns, and about 3,800 warplanes. The Soviet forces were joined by four Mongolian cavalry divisions and one motorised brigade.[1] Soviet naval forces included the Pacific Fleet (Commander-in-Chief Admiral I. S. Yumashev) with the Northern Pacific Flotilla (Commander-in-Chief Vice-Admiral V. A. Andreyev), and also the Amur Flotilla (Commander-in-Chief Rear-Admiral N. V. Antonov). All combined they had 15 large warships, 78 submarines, about 500 other vessels, and over 1,500 planes.[2]

Faithful to its obligation before its Allies and in compliance with the decisions of the Crimean Conference of the heads of government of the USSR, the United States and Britain, the Soviet Union on August 8, 1945 declared war on Japan. The Soviet offensive began early in the morning of August 9 along a front extending for more than 5,000 km from the Trans-Baikal Region to Vladivostok. The Japanese put up fierce resistance. However, during the first six days of war, the Soviet troops surmounted the fortified dis-

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[1] *Velikaya Otechestvennaya voina 1941-1945* (The Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945. A Brief Outline), Moscow, 1973, p. 386 (in Russian).

[2] *Ibid.*

tricts, routed the bulk of the enemy forces and reached the central areas of Northeast China. The Kwantung Army was cut to pieces and was soon brought to the verge of collapse, and the Japanese High Command was forced to surrendor

Soviet naval forces took part in the operations against the Japanese from the very outset. The Pacific Fleet struck with planes and torpedo boats at enemy naval bases at Yuki (Unggi), Rashin (Najin) and Seishin (Chongjin) in North Korea. Part of the Soviet submarine force was deployed in the Sea of Japan off the North Korean coast, around the main naval base of the Pacific Fleet in Vladivostok, and off the coast of South Sakhalin and Hokkaido. Soviet units placed mine barrages on the approaches to Soviet ports and bases, and Soviet warships, submarines and Navy planes hunted for enemy submarines.

By landing marines in Unggi, Najin and other places, the Pacific Fleet hastened the advance of Soviet ground troops. On August 16, Soviet landing troops, warships and aircraft crushed the fierce Japanese resistance and captured the Japanese naval base at Seishin and then the bases of Odentsing and Wonsan in North Korea to complete the liberation of the Korean northeast coast from the Japanese invaders. Japanese forces were thus deprived of bases from which they could evacuate, and found themselves cut off from Japan.

South Sakhalin was liberated after the Northern Pacific Flotilla landed marines, who, together with Soviet infantry advancing from the north, crushed the enemy at the Koto Fortified Zone.

In the second half of August, the Kuril Islands were liberated by a landing operation, in which warships, the air force, two infantry regiments, a battalion of marines, and other units took part. In the course of fierce fighting, the landing parties first captured Shumshu Island. After that, the forces of the Kamchatka Defence District and the Petropavlovsk-Kamchatsky naval base occupied the entire Northern Kurils, including Urup Island, and the forces of the Northern Pacific Flotilla took the islands south of Urup.

During the first days of hostilities, the bulk of the Amur Flotilla assisted ground troops in crossing the deep Amur and Ussuri rivers and then continued operating mainly on the Sungari, a tributary of the Amur. Advancing up the river inside Manchuria, the flotilla landed troops and helped the advancing Soviet forces break through enemy defences, cap-

ture towns, and mop up surrounded Japanese units. On August 21, warships with troops on board reached Harbin where they captured and disarmed the Japanese Sungari Flotilla.

During the 24 days of hostilities, Soviet forces liberated South Sakhalin, the Kuril Islands, Northeast China and North Korea. The rout of the powerful Kwantung Army rendered any further Japanese resistance against the Allies entirely futile. On September 2, 1945 Japan signed an act of unconditional surrender at a ceremony on board the US battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay. Thus the last ally of vanquished nazi Germany and one of the chief perpetrators of World War II acknowledged defeat.

Militarist Japan was beaten by the joint actions of the Anglo-American Allies and the USSR. But the rout of the Kwantung Army played a decisive role in ending the war. In 1945 this fact was admitted by many political and military leaders abroad, including the US and Britain.

In the post-war years, however, public figures and reactionary historians in the West on many occasions have sought to falsify the history of the war. To belittle the Soviet contribution to Japan's defeat, they have insisted that the barbarous atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki played the decisive role in Japan's surrender. Yet these views are disproved by historical facts. The atomic bombardments of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, which killed and mauled almost 450,000 people, were acts of unprecedented barbarity. They were not dictated by military necessity. As a matter of fact, they neither weakened Japan's military potential, nor the resolve of her ruling circles to continue the war. These acts of senseless brutality marked the US imperialists' first step in their post-war policy of atomic blackmail, a policy primarily aimed against the USSR. Actually, back in April 1945, when the US War Secretary reported to President Truman that the A-bomb would possibly be ready in three or four months, the latter remarked: "If it explodes, as I think it will, I'll certainly have a hammer on those boys." [1]

The victory in the Far East had enormous significance for the cause of peace. The Japanese imperialists lost a much-valued base for attacks against the USSR. They were also forced to return South Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands, both

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[1] Quoted from: Bert Cochran, *The War System,* New York-London, 1965, p. 43.

properly part of Russia, and to withdraw from Manchuria and other previously occupied areas of China. As a result, Soviet frontiers became more stable. The victory over Japan also created favourable conditions for the development of national liberation struggles in the colonial countries of Asia.

A new revolutionary upsurge was developing in China. In Soviet-liberated Manchuria, the inhabitants joined the struggle against the Kuomintang regime and their imperialist patrons from the United States.

The Soviet government handed over all the captured Japanese military equipment to the Chinese People's Liberation Army, which later also received Soviet weapons. This enabled the People's Liberation Army to launch a large-scale offensive and liberate continental China. In the past, Chinese leaders and historians have repeatedly emphasised the good effects of Soviet assistance. However, today, seized by malicious anti-Soviet sentiments and the desire to establish their hegemony in Asia and other regions, they seek to rewrite history, denying generally recognised facts.

The victory over Japan enabled the national liberation movements in North Korea and North Vietnam to win power and establish people's democracies. It also made it possible for Indonesia and other countries in Southeast Asia to embark on the road of independence.

* * *

The Soviet Navy made a worthy contribution to the victory over nazi Germany and imperialist Japan. It inflicted heavy losses on the German Navy in the Barents, Baltic and Black seas and covered the strategic maritime flanks of Soviet land forces; it also provided them vital support in defensive and offensive operations in maritime, lake and river areas, destroyed enemy warships and transports, and reliably defended Soviet sea communications.

The Soviet Navy acquired valuable experience in joint operations with land forces in coastal areas, and also in independent actions on sea communications. The former were dictated by military expediency and the requirements of the single Soviet strategy, envisaging united efforts of all the armed services in fulfilling their respective strategic tasks.

Active operations by Soviet fleets and flotillas and their constant readiness to repel enemy attacks from the sea prevented the nazis from landing even a single large-scale force

on the Soviet coast or affecting Soviet troop operations in maritime regions.

During the war, Soviet marines fought on virtually all the land fronts and their heroic service added an immortal chapter to the history of the Soviet Navy. They played an outstanding role in the defence of Hangö, the Moonsunds, Tallinn, Odessa, Sevastopol, the Polar region, Leningrad, Moscow, Stalingrad and the Caucasus; they also took part in the liberation of Belgrade, Bratislava, Budapest, Vienna and Northern Norway, and in storming Berlin.

A total of 400,000 officers, petty officers and sailors fought on land fronts. They comprised over 40 brigades of marines and naval infantry brigades, six detached regiments, and a great number of detached battalions and units. In addition, about 100,000 effectives continued to take part in the hostilities as marines aboard warships. They defended naval bases and islands and took part in numerous landings. Land units consisting of Soviet sailors showed exceptionally high combat efficiency, and the Soviet Command used them in the most crucial sectors of the front. In offensive and defensive operations in maritime sectors of the front, the Soviet Navy used both warships and vessels hardly suitable for this purpose to land over 110 task forces totalling over 250,000 fully equipped men, i.e. almost 30 divisions. The Germans had specialised amphibious vessels and yet were able to land no significant force.

Operations on enemy communication lines required enormous efforts, and Soviet submarines, aircraft, torpedo boats, destroyers and, occasionally, coastal artillery persistently struck at nazi warships and transports. As a result, a total of almost 1,300 German transports of 3,000,000 tons displacement and over 1,200 warships and auxiliary vessels were destroyed during the war. Soviet Navy planes flew over 380,000 missions and destroyed almost 5,000 enemy planes.[1]

Another important chapter in the wartime records of the Soviet Navy involved transporting troops and supplies near the battlefront and safeguarding communication lines. During the war years, the Navy transported 100,000,000 tons of cargo, petroleum and oil products making a considerable proportion, and 10,000,000 servicemen to all the theatres.

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[1] N. G. Kuznetsov, *Kursom k pobede,* (Heading for Victory), Moscow, 1975, p. 508 (in Russian).

Apart from that, it delivered 17,000,000 tons of cargo over external communication routs.[1]

No matter where Soviet naval troops fought their actions were invariably marked by mass heroism, iron tenacity, initiative on the defence, and audacious and irresistible blows on the offensive. For courage, fortitude and valour shown during the war, over 350,000 servicemen were decorated with military orders and medals, and 580 awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union, seven of them twice. Decorations were also bestowed on 238 warships and naval units which had particularly distinguished themselves in battle, and 76 warships and units were given the title of the Guards. The Baltic, Northern, Pacific and Black Sea fleets and nearly all the flotillas were decorated with the Order of the Red Banner, the Baltic Fleet twice.

The merchant marine and the fishery fleet also took active part in the hostilities. Hundreds of transports and other vessels carried troops, equipment and general cargo despite attacks by enemy warships, planes and submarines. Many of them took part in landing operations together with warships, delivered supplies to beachheads, and defended naval bases.

The victory over the nazis was due to the heroic struggle of Soviet soldiers and sailors on land, sea and in the air, and to the selfless labour of Soviet people in the rear. Factory workers produced warships, equipment and fuel, and farmers food products—all that was needed for waging the war on the seas and maintaining high Soviet naval power.

Soviet shipyards repaired damaged warships and built new ones to compensate for losses; they also supplied the Navy with more modern armaments and equipment, including artillery, torpedoes, mines, and hydroacoustic devices.

During the war, the Soviet shipbuilding industry chiefly produced small warships and torpedo boats; this was because a number of dockyards were destroyed and many other facilities had switched over to producing tanks and other military equipment. However, even then, Soviet dockyards commissioned two light cruisers, 19 destroyers, 38 minesweepers, 54 submarines and about 900 torpedo boats.

By the end of the war, the Navy was stronger than before the start of hostilities and retained its efficiency and supremacy on all the theatres.

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[1] S. G. Gorshkov, *op. cit.*, p. 234.

CHAPTER III

SAFEGUARDING THE GAINS OF SOCIALISM

1. In the Face of a New Threat

The Soviet Union paid a dear price for victory in the war. Twenty million Soviet soldiers and civilians fell in battle, were killed in enemy-occupied territories and died in nazi concentration camps. The nazi invaders had turned into smouldering ruins over 1,700 towns and settlements and more than 70,000 villages. The USSR lost thirty per cent of its national wealth.

The paramount task was to restore the economy, and the Soviet people, including front-line servicemen who had returned from the fields of battle, got down to work. By 1948, a total of about 8,500,000 servicemen were discharged from the Army and Navy. As a result, the Soviet Armed Forces, which in May 1945 numbered 11,365,000 men, were reduced to 2,874,000.

The post-war international situation seemed to favour this considerable reduction of armed forces. Germany was defeated, and in summer 1945 the members of the anti-Hitler coalition had pledged at their Potsdam Conference jointly consolidate the peace. However, facts which became known later show that the ruling circles of capitalist countries, frightened by the successes of the Red Army, were already nurturing anti-Soviet schemes even before the war had ended. British Prime Minister Churchill called on US President Truman to take steps to create a united front of bourgeois states to counteract the USSR. Churchill was

supported by representatives of influential reactionary business circles and by anti-Soviet politicians, religious leaders and other public figures in Western Europe and the United States.

Thus, soon after the collapse of the Axis, the West began a cold war against the USSR and the socialist community. The cold war was characterised by constant tension, which at any moment threatened to develop into an open conflict.

The advocates of the cold war intimidated the peoples with the far-fetched threat of "Soviet aggression" and the entirely imaginary Soviet aspiration to establish supremacy over other nations; they called for an arms race, for the setting up of aggressive military and political blocs directed against the USSR and its friends, and used false propaganda, misinformation, malicious slander, secret conspiracies and other dishonest means to fight the forces of socialism and democracy.

A special role in this campaign was assigned to the policy of atomic blackmail, threats and diktat by the temporary US monopoly of nuclear weapons. In his memoirs US President Truman wrote about the period after the first US A-bomb was dropped on Hiroshima: "We were now in possession of a weapon that would not only revolutionize war but could alter the course of history and civilization." [1] The American press openly called for the atomic bombardment of Soviet cities and, to intimidate the USSR even more, numerous US bombers carrying nuclear weapons patrolled the air space ready to strike.

In 1946, the newly formed US Strategic Air Command received many long-range bombers, including A-bomb carriers; in addition to these, US shock naval forces were deployed in the Atlantic and Pacific.

While launching the arms race and creating a real threat to the USSR and other socialist countries, the imperialists simultaneously stepped up their struggle against the world revolutionary and national liberation movements and against democratic and progressive forces in their own countries.

In 1949, the aggressive North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) was set up under the auspices of the United States; the membership first included 12, and then 15 imperialist

[1] *Memoirs by Harry S. Truman,* Vol. 1, "Year of Decisions", New York, 1955, p. 415.

countries. Subsequently, other military and military-political alliances of bourgeois states sprang up in various areas of the globe. The United States and some of its partners in aggressive blocs began developing a ramified network of air and naval bases around the socialist states, that could serve as spring-boards for attacking the USSR and its socialist allies.

As became known many years later, in 1949 the US Joint Chiefs of Staff, on the instructions of President Truman, developed the Dropshot Plan for attacking the USSR, under which the United States and its allies were to drop 300 atomic and 20,000 conventional bombs and then invade the Soviet Union and the people's democracies with 250 divisions. The invasion was to take place via Kola Peninsula in the north and via the Balkans in the south, and US generals even specified the key Soviet centres and regions to be occupied and the number of divisions to be stationed in each captured city.

It was, of course, not coincidental that the United States and Britain had changed their wartime policy of alliance with the USSR to an open struggle against the socialist community, the causes of this change in policy being in the innate social nature of imperialism.

As Lenin had time and again noted, imperialism is distinguished by growing reaction on all lines and by growing militarism. In the post-war years, militarism gained strength largely because the imperialist powers sought to forcibly stop the historically irreversible growth of the forces of democracy and socialism and to impede a revolutionary renovation of the world. In stepping up their preparations for war, aggressive circles in the West showed a desire to resolve world issues from the position of strength, by diktat. Military gambles and aggressive wars are constant concomitants of imperialism. In the thirty odd post-war years imperialism had started dozens of local conflicts, as a result of which an enormous amount of property was destroyed and millions of people killed and maimed for life. According to the Brookings Institution in Washington, from 1946 to 1975 America had on 215 occasions used her armed forces to support her foreign policies.

The arms race and military adventures are sources of huge profits for monopolies, and this is the main reason why leading capitalist countries, primarily the United States, continue

to increasingly militarise their economies. From 1968 to 1977, the NATO countries spent 1,300 thousand million dollars for military purposes. In 1977 alone, NATO's military expenditures amounted to 165 thousand million dollars. In 1978 they increased to almost 180 thousand million, and future plans provide for further increases from year to year.

To justify this trend, reactionary bourgeois politicians deliberately falsify facts and distort the actual state of affairs. The trite allegation used time and again is that the Soviet military potential is dangerously mounting and that the USSR's military expenditures by far exceed its actual defensive needs. Moreover, militarist circles in the West and their proxies in the respective governments are entirely unscrupulous in choosing the means for attaining their ends, not even bothering about elementary logic. When they want to obtain new allocations, they intimidate the public and parliaments by "superior Soviet might", and when they have to show their concern about defence they assure public opinion of "absolute Western superiority". But in reality Soviet expenditures are not greater than those needed to safeguard the nation's security, to ensure that a potential aggressor would not be tempted into resolving the historical dispute between capitalism and socialism by force. In recent years, Soviet military spending has remained at an unchanging level of 17.1-17.2 thousand million roubles. In 1981 it will be 17.05 thousand million or 5.4 per cent of the budget.

In stepping up the arms race and equipping their forces with increasingly powerful destructive weaponry, NATO and the Pentagon have occasionally introduced amendments to their military doctrine and strategic concepts, which, however, have remained essentially the same, chiefly oriented towards starting a nuclear war which would involve massive use of nuclear missile weapons. This is borne out, among other things, by the US campaign against the ratification of the SALT II Treaty and by Washington's "new nuclear strategy" envisaging preparation of US strategic nuclear forces for a surprise preemptive strike against military targets in the Soviet Union and other Warsaw Treaty countries.

Taking this view as their basis, the NATO countries are constantly improving their nuclear weapons and delivery systems. They are developing nuclear task forces and conducting numerous exercises involving nuclear missile weapons. The United States has strived to stock its nuclear arsenal

with the neutron bomb and many other new weapons and to station strategic cruise and medium-range ballistic missiles in Western Europe. At the same time, America is giving constant attention to improving and boosting conventional forces. In the long run, all these are preparations for starting a new world war.

The present-day rulers of China have teamed up with the most outright militarists. Their policies stem from the inhuman concept that a new world war is allegedly not only inevitable, but necessary. They provoke reactionary forces into starting a new war and make outrageous claims on lands of neighbouring countries.

The perfidious Chinese assault on Vietnam showed to the whole world Peking's irresponsible attitude to the destinies of the world and the readiness with which it resorts to arms to satisfy its hegemonist ambitions.

In NATO's war preparations, the US and other large naval powers attach paramount significance to their Navies, especially to units designed for nuclear missile warfare. In recent years, America has been spending more money on its Navy than on its Air Force and Army.

The table below shows the pattern of the US military budget allocations (in thousand million US dollars) for the armed services.

Armed service	Fiscal Year							
	1963	1968	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Army	12.3	25.0	21.7	22.1	24.0	21.7	26.7	28.8
Navy	14.5	20.0	25.4	26.9	28.4	31.5	36.5	39.7
Air Force	20.0	24.9	24.7	24.7	26.2	28.5	31.5	33.2

The core of the US Navy consists of strike forces composed of guided nuclear missile submarines and nuclear-powered aircraft carriers. These are the principal delivery vehicles of nuclear weapons in the US Navy.

The first American nuclear missile-carrying submarine, the *George Washington* equipped with 16 Polaris ballistic missiles, began patrolling the high seas at the end of 1960. From that time on, many Western nuclear missile-carrying submarines have been constantly patrolling the waters around the USSR ready to deliver nuclear missile blows.

In 1979, the US Navy had 41 nuclear submarines each armed with 16 Polaris A-3 or Poseidon C-3 missiles. All these underwater craft are armed with a total of 656 ballistic missiles carrying 7,494 multiple warheads.

In 1972, the United States started a Trident project for building a new generation of nuclear submarines, each of which was to carry 24 ballistic missiles with multiple warheads and the range of up to 12,000 km. The first Trident submarine is to be commissioned in 1980.

Britain and France each have four nuclear submarines armed with 16 missiles, and France is presently building another one.

The United States has 16 striking (multi-purpose) aircraft carriers, three of them nuclear-powered, carrying a total of 1,500 planes. These carriers form large units in the Atlantic, Pacific and Mediterranean. They are intensively preparing to deliver nuclear blows at ground targets and to assist land forces both in nuclear and local conflicts. The USA has also considerably increased its amphibious forces designed for landing operations. In the post-war years, the Americans have developed fundamentally new landing craft carrying cargo helicopters, marines and various military equipment. These vessels are intended for quickly transporting troops and military hardware and for blitz landings on barren coasts.

The leading NATO powers have many multi-purpose nuclear- and diesel-powered submarines armed with torpedoes; they also have destroyers, frigates, coast guards and other warships.

American military programmes for the '80s envisage further naval build-up, primarily of strategic nuclear forces. All this presents an increasing threat to the USSR. Aiming their nuclear naval forces chiefly against the Soviet Union, the United States and its NATO partners seek to deploy large naval units simultaneously in different key areas of the globe so that they would always be ready to conduct local wars and perform police functions against nations struggling for national and social emancipation. The role of watchdogs of American imperialism is assigned to the US 6th Fleet in the Mediterranean and the 7th Fleet in the West Pacific.

American naval units first appeared in the Mediterranean during World War II, and remained there in increasing numbers after the war was over. At the end of 1946, the Pentagon formed the Mediterranean Squadron, which in

1948 was reorganised into the 6th Fleet. Ever since then, the United States has used it for fighting Arab national liberation movements, for threats and political pressure, and for backing US economic expansion in the Middle East, Africa and Southern Europe.

Bertrand Russell, British scientist and public figure, wrote that the best way to forecast a hotbed of tension was carefully to follow the movements of the US Navy marines. That was certainly the case in 1947, when the United States took advantage of its naval and air presence in the Mediterranean to interfere in Italy's internal affairs during the first post-war elections in that country, thus ensuring the victory of reactionary political forces.

In 1958, the 6th Fleet moved into the East Mediterranean where it first made several threatening demonstrations off Arab shores and then landed a big contigent of marines in Lebanon. The marines, together with British troops which had invaded Jordan, occupied the two countries. Only strong protests of peace forces and a resolute Soviet stand compelled them to withdraw.

Later, the United States again repeatedly used the 6th Fleet for aggression. During the October 1973 war in the Middle East, Washington, obviously for purposes of global blackmail, put its armed forces on the alert. This primarily involved measures for increasing the fighting potential of the 6th Fleet. On top af all that, America's NATO allies also have considerable naval forces in the Mediterranean.

The United States makes wide use of its 7th Fleet to fight national liberation movements and democratic and progressive regimes in the Pacific. In 1950-1953, naval forces of the US and its allies took an active part in the aggressive war in Korea. Later, when the US imperialists for more than ten years fought the Vietnamese and other peoples of Indochina, the bulk of the 7th Fleet constantly patrolled the Vietnamese coast, and from four to six aircraft carriers, over 60 big warships and many patrol vessels were directly engaged in the hostilities. Side by side with American and puppet South Vietnamese army they tried to crush the liberation struggle of democratic forces in Vietnam. However, the people of Vietnam, supported by socialist countries and progressives all over the world, proved stronger. Thus, imperialism's biggest attempt after World War II to make short work of a socialist country ended in a fiasco.

To strengthen its naval positions in the Pacific, the United States is modernising its bases and building new ones. Six American aircraft carriers are stationed there and ten nuclear submarines have their bases in Guam. American warships in the Pacific have 2,500 nuclear weapons. It is noteworthy that the expansionist US policy in that area enjoys the support of China, whose leaders show themselves to be enemies of detente in Asia. Senior Chinese officials have repeatedly urged the Pentagon not to withdraw its forces from the Pacific and have time and again indicated their understanding of US military preparations in the area.

The United States is also seeking to increase its naval presence in the Indian Ocean. It has built a strong naval and air base in Diego Garcia in the central part of the ocean for intervening in the internal affairs of the states in that region. Washington is also planning to organise the 5th Fleet for policing the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf. The Americans regard this as particularly important today, now that the pro-US regime in Iran has been overthrown and US military bases there dismantled.

2. Peaceful Disposition and Readiness to Repulse Any Aggressor

Throughout its history, the USSR has always been fundamentally opposed to any idea of resolving the historical dispute between socialism and capitalism through an arms race and military confrontation. From the very start, the Soviet State had the call for peace inscribed on its banner. An active and consistent struggle for peace, for peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems has always been the pivot of Soviet foreign policy, and after World War II the Communist Party and Soviet government have continued to firmly pursue this course. The Soviet Union counters all imperialist policies, which reckon on strength, on the arms race and on aggravating the international situation, by persistent efforts for consolidating peace and security, for preventing a new world war, and for furthering detente.

The USSR has repeatedly made constructive proposals for banning nuclear weapons, limiting strategic armaments, curbing the arms race, reducing armed forces, and simultaneously disbanding NATO and the Warsaw Pact. It has

also put forward a proposal on a mutual ban on the production of neutron weapons and a number of other initiatives which, if accepted, could have improved the international situation, strengthened the peace and trust among nations, and eliminated war from the life of mankind. Since World War II, the USSR has made over 70 such proposals to different international organisations and at various conferences.

The Peace Programme adopted by the 24th CPSU Congress and further developed by the 25th Congress, and the active struggle of the CPSU Central Committee headed by General Secretary Leonid Brezhnev for implementing this programme, has received the general approval of all peace-loving nations. Soviet efforts, as well as those of all socialist community countries, to further detente have borne real fruit. The seventies were marked by positive changes. Peaceful coexistence began to dominate relations between countries with different social systems.

But at the juncture of the 1970s and 1980s the international situation took a perceptible turn for the worse. The blame for that lies with the imperialist forces, above all, the ruling quarters of the United States. They countered positive international developments with a trend to undermine detente and aggravate the international situation. Deliberately blind to today's realities, US leaders decided to upset military parity and put the Soviet Union and the socialist community at a disadvantage. They try to impede the national liberation struggle, pursue expansionism and attempt to dictate their will to the socialist and other countries.

In this complex situation, the Soviet Union, invariably true to its policy of peace, keeps up the drive towards strengthening international security and for closer rapprochement and understanding among nations.

The USSR maintains that international cooperation in using the seas and oceans essentially depends on further detente and consolidation of peace. It has resolutely come out against infringements by the naval and air forces of the United States and certain other NATO countries on freedom of navigation and safety on the high seas, against US warships and planes "identifying" foreign vessels either by dangerously approaching or cutting them off, or by feigning attack against Soviet vessels and flying over them. The Soviet-US Agreement on the Prevention of Incidents on and over the Sea signed in 1972 on the initiative of the USSR

was an important step in adjusting Soviet-US naval relationships. It reaffirmed the principles of international law and the 1958 Geneva Convention on the High Seas.

At the UN Conference on the Sea Law, the USSR has consistently come out for freedom of navigation in straits used for transit passage by all countries, and against claims by some states to a 200-mile limit of territorial waters. The 25th Session of the UN General Assembly drew up and approved the Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of Nuclear Weapons and Other Weapons of Mass Destruction on the Sea-Bed and the Ocean Floor and in the Subsoil Thereof; this was done on the initiative of the Soviet Union.

The peaceful disposition of the USSR is due neither to its weakness, nor to temporary political considerations. The Soviet people need peace to achieve their plans of building a new society, to ensure further all-round development of the economy and the people's wellfare, to satisfy their growing material and cultural requirements. Consolidation of world peace and equitable cooperation meet the deepest aspirations of the broadest strata of working people, of all people of good will.

The peaceful policy of the USSR stems from the very essence of its social system, from communist ideology which rejects war as a means for solving international disputes. Soviet military might exists solely for defensive purposes, for defending the socialist gains and peaceful work of the Soviet people. Leonid Brezhnev emphasised in one of his speeches: "We are compelled to perfect our defences, *compelled* I reiterate, because we are faced by an unchecked arms race."

The Soviet government has adopted measures for increasing vigilance and strengthening the nation's defence potential in response to the aggressive intrigues and threats of imperialist states. To this end, along with the rapid development of Soviet economy, science and technology, measures had to be taken to boost the nation's military potential and increase the combat readiness of the armed forces.

The far-sighted policy of the Communist Party, the advantages of developed socialism, and the enthusiasm of Soviet people have made possible. the effective and harmonious solution of problems of economic development, an improved standard of living, and the simultaneous strengthening of national defence. This, in turn, made it possible to ensure that the fire and striking power of the armed forces meet

the requirements of the current situation.

The Warsaw Treaty Organisation, a defensive military and political alliance of socialist countries created in 1955 to offset the aggressive North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, is a powerful and effective factor of peace and stability in international relations. The Warsaw Pact ensures coordination of the efforts of fraternal socialist countries in the struggle for peace and security, in implementing joint defense measures.

Soviet achievements in economy, science, technology and culture form the basis for strengthening the country's defences. The rapid growth of industry, agriculture, transport and communications, the increasing standard of living, the development of culture and education and the scientific and technological progress have made the USSR one of the world's most developed countries. The Soviet Union ranks first in output of steel, oil, cast iron, iron and manganese ore, coal, coke, cement, tractors, diesel locomotives, electric locomotives, mineral fertilisers, cotton, wool, flax, and some other items. Soviet economy, science and technology permit to solve any task of the nation's defence and to produce all modern means of warfare.

Today, even the most rabid anti-Soviet elements realise that the USSR is capable of giving a crushing rebuff to any aggressor.

Yet, the Soviet people never did and never will engage in sabre-rattling. The Soviet government has repeatedly declared that the USSR has no intentions of attacking anyone. Replying to questions asked by *Vorwärts,* the weekly organ of the Social Democratic Party of Germany, Leonid Brezhnev indicated: "We neither want, nor plan war. But the Soviet people know from their own bitter experience what huge casualties aggression can bring to the population. We all too often hear arguments from the other side that they are ready to deal 'powerful, annihilating and pre-emptive blows', etc., not to take any defensive measures." [1]

Therefore, taking into account the complex and contradictory international situation and the fact that hostile actions against world socialism are becoming increasingly active, the Communist Party and Soviet government combine their struggle for peace and international security with constant vigilance against the intrigues of reactionary imperialist

[1] *Kommunist,* No. 8, 1979, p. 9.

forces, and fuse their will for peace with further consolidation of the nation's defence potential, and their readiness for partial and even complete mutual disarmament with the readiness to resolutely repulse any aggression, including aggression from the sea.

Safeguarding the peaceful life of the people, the Soviet Armed Forces, together with the armed forces of fraternal socialist countries, are safeguarding the gains of socialism. They constitute a reliable bulwark of world peace and security.

3. The Soviet Navy Grows to Emerge in the Open Seas

The imperialist policy from the position of strength, the atomic blackmail, and the increasing threat of an imperialist attack compelled the Soviet government as early as the first post-war years to give unremitting concern to national defence. Special attention was given to creating national atomic weapons and means for their delivery, in the meantime contraposing aggressive imperialist forces with a powerful and battle-seasoned Army and Navy which, though considerably reduced in size, were equipped with the most up-to-date conventional weapons. Rapid advances in Soviet science and technology and the growth of the nation's economic potential opened wide opportunities in this field.

In the first post-war decade, Soviet naval development took place much quicker than before the war. For instance, the total tonnage of warships commisioned in 1952 exceeded by 3.5 times that of 1940. Over 30 per cent of the 1953 Navy were built after the war.[1]

New cruisers, destroyers, torpedo boats, amphibious vessels and other warships were commisioned, all of them highly navigable and manoeuvrable and equipped with powerful artillery, anti-aircraft, and mine-and-torpedo weapons, as well as with very precise navigation and combat control devices. Vessels built before the war were modernised with stronger artillery, anti-aircraft and anti-submarine weapons, and other technical innovations.

In the light of its wartime experience the Soviet Navy's submarine force was increased. The new submarines could sail at high speed both under water and on the surface; submerge quickly and for long periods of time; and operate not only in closed seas, but in the ocean.

In the '50s the USSR began building nuclear-powered submarines, which opened a new chapter in the development of the Soviet Navy. Nuclear engines were much more powerful than all conventional machines, and nuclear-powered submarines therefore represented a basically new type of underwater craft with virtually unlimited sailing range, increased autonomous sailing duration, and high underwater and surface speeds.

The Soviet Navy replaced piston-engined planes with jet planes, including long-range missile-carrying bombers. Coastal and anti-aircraft artillery was equipped with new systems, and the marines received more sophisticated automatic weapons.

The Navy's organisation remained essentially unchanged. However, there was an obvious tendency towards increasing the submarine force, since submarines were highly promising for combat operations in remote areas of the World Ocean.

Having lost their significance in peacetime, the White Sea, the Danube and the Dnieper flotillas were disbanded.

In the mid-1950s, the Navy, along with all Armed Forces of the USSR, entered a new stage of development involving fundamental changes in all military spheres. This was promoted by the extensive introduction of atomic weapons, missiles, and radioelectronic equipment. The growing Soviet economy and the outstanding achievements of Soviet science and engineering made it possible to develop in necessary quantities the production of nuclear weapons and multi-purpose missiles. Thus America's nuclear monopoly was eliminated.

It should be stressed that the large-scale introduction of nuclear missile weapons was a retaliatory measure, which the USSR was compelled to take because of the arms race in the West and constant threat coming from there.

The USSR continued its naval development, aiming for a new ocean-going nuclear missile fleet that would meet all modern requirements for defending the nation from possible aggression.

In 1955, a Soviet submarine for the first time launched a ballistic missile. In the late '50s, Soviet submarines were

[1] *Istoriya sovetskikh vooruzhonnykh sil*, (A History of the Soviet Armed Forces), Moscow, 1968, p. 396 (in Russian).

equipped with combat ballistic missiles which, however, could initially be launched only from the surface. Later, they were armed with missiles that could be launched from underwater and with long-range ballistic missiles for striking against remote land objectives. In those years, submarines began to be equipped with nuclear engines, and this gave them complete autonomy and virtually unlimited operating range. Armed with powerful missiles, they emerged as a new class of nuclear submarine missile carriers.

Surface warships, e. g., cruisers and torpedo boats, and coastal units and naval aircraft were also equipped with missiles. The shipbuilding industry provided the Navy with anti-submarine ships capable of successfully fighting potential enemy submarines. The Navy also received more sophisticated navigation instruments, radio devices, hydrolocators, and artillery and torpedo firing control devices. Anti-submarine and anti-mine weapons developed rapidly, too, and naval aviation was reinforced with anti-submarine planes and helicopters.

All these basically new systems naturally led to fundamental changes in the Navy's combat efficiency and technical characteristics. The Soviet Navy could now fulfil theretofore unfeasible tasks and make a better showing in conventional operations.

The Navy has always been an instrument of peaceful Soviet policy, a policy of consolidating friendship among nations and deterring imperialist gambles. In his reply to *Vorwärts* magazine, Leonid Brezhnev emphasised: "Speaking of our Navy, let me first of all remind you of a simple fact, namely, that Soviet sea frontiers extend for 40,000 kilometers. Now that the NATO countries possess powerful offensive naval weapons, we must also think of providing suitable defences in this sphere. We have built an ocean-going Navy adequate to cope with the task. It is not superior to the Western navies, and its structure clearly shows its defensive character. For instance, it is not accidental that we neither possess, nor build striking aircraft carriers." [1]

By creating a modern Navy and deploying it in the open seas, the USSR has limited the possibilities for the imperialist powers to use their naval forces for aggressive purposes. Today, all expansionist aspirations against the USSR and

[1] *Kommunist*, No. 8, 1978, p. 9.

other socialist countries in the seas and oceans are set off by the Soviet Navy, which, together with the other arms and services, is successfully fulfilling its basic mission of defending the country from sea attack.

The modern Soviet Navy can deal powerful blows against important land targets, crush enemy nuclear submarines and striking aircraft carriers both at their bases and on the high seas, and conduct operations on enemy communication lines. The Navy also has various means for assisting land forces in coastal operations.

Organisationally, the Soviet Navy consists of the Northern, Pacific, Baltic and Black Sea Fleets, the Caspian Flotilla, and the Leningrad naval base.

The building of an ocean-going Navy represented a great challenge. A modern warship is equipped with numerous sophisticated instruments, systems and complexes involving the most up-to-date achievements of science and engineering. It has atomic power plants, powerful gas and steam turbines, multi-purpose missiles, artillery weapons and underwater ordnance, tracking and detection instruments, and a wide range of radioelectronic and automatic systems.

The difficulties in building a Navy capable of preventing or foiling an enemy attack from the sea were augmented by the fact that, unlike Western navies, the Soviet Navy has no bases on foreign territories which the USSR had never sought to acquire. Hence, lengthy navigation in remote areas was provided by a number of technical innovations and by building specialised supply and maintenance vessels.

The Soviet Navy includes submarines, surface warships, naval aviation, coastal missile artillery, and marines. It also has auxiliary vessels and special-purpose units. The Navy's main arms are its submarines and aviation, and the main weapons are different types of missiles with nuclear warheads.

Submarines. The Soviet Navy has nuclear and dieselpowered submarines armed with missiles or torpedoes. Compared to the pre-war models, modern submarine engines are almost one hundred times more powerful, and naturally, the speed of the submarines, their submergence depth and ability to stay underwater all have grown several times. When moving in close even on high-speed surface ships, the submarine can stick with them for a long time and repeatedly attack them, and quickly submerging to great depths can easier

avoid anti-submarine units. At the same time, nuclear submarines have powerful hydroacoustic systems, and this permits them to successfully hunt down and destroy enemy submarines. By sailing deep underwater with a minimum of noise, they can operate in a very concealed manner and become invulnerable to enemy attack.

Nuclear submarines are subdivided into missile and torpedo-carrying. Missile-carrying nuclear submarines are the main force of the world's leading navies, including the Soviet Navy. These large underwater craft are armed with powerful long-range strategic missiles and are designed for striking at enemy land targets from underwater.

Unlike missile-carrying submarines, torpedo-carrying nuclear submarines carry tactical weapons and can operate against strongly-protected big warships without entering effective anti-submarine defence zones. They are equipped with modern hydroacoustic devices which permit them to successfully fight enemy submarines.

The excellent qualities of Soviet nuclear submarines were confirmed during remote voyages and under-ice navigations. In 1962, the *Leninsky Komsomol* sailed under the Arctic, and in 1963 another Soviet submarine did the same to emerge at the North Pole and hoist the Soviet flag and naval ensign over the hummocked ice. In 1966, a group of nuclear submarines under Rear-Admiral A. I. Sorokin sailed 25,000 miles around the world without emerging to the surface.

Due to their increasingly improved armaments and navigability, diesel submarines are still an important and effective class of underwater craft.

Surface ships. Modern ocean-going and coastal surface ships substantially differ from those built soon after World War II. They possess powerful weapons, high navigability and fighting efficiency, and can perform numerous operations in oceans and closed seas both independently and jointly with submarines and aviation, employing various long-range missiles, artillery and torpedoes against mixed enemy forces. Increasingly modern anti-aircraft weapons permit them to effectively counter all kinds of air attacks.

Ocean-going and coastal anti-submarine ships constitute a large group of surface vessels. The former include anti-submarine cruisers and big anti-submarine ships, and the latter small high-speed craft that can hunt down and destroy nuclear and diesel-powered submarines in coastal areas.

Anti-submarine cruisers carrying helicopters and planes are the most powerful forces designed for tracking down and annihilating nuclear submarines in remote areas of the ocean. The crews of the anti-submarine cruisers *Moskva, Leningrad* and *Kiev* have repeatedly shown their excellent training and morale.

Another large group of surface ships includes high-speed missile cruisers and boats. Ships carrying multi-purpose different-range missiles are the pride of Soviet naval architecture. Their good navigability and combat efficiency were displayed by the missile cruisers *Varyag, Admiral Fokin* and *Admiral Golovko* during distant voyages.

Missile boats are intended for destroying surface ships and transports. They can operate at high speed both in closed seas and ocean coastal waters, and represent a really formidable force. The salvo of a modern missile boat is more powerful than that of all the guns of a World War II cruiser.

The Soviet Navy also has amphibious vessels, including hovercraft for transporting Army landing units, marines and equipment. Amphibious craft have special facilities for the crew, and also holds and platforms for tanks, guns, automobiles, and other hardware. They can take and land troops directly from and to shore, and are armed with quick-firing all-purpose artillery to repel attacks by aircraft and light vessels.

Surface ships play a major role in combatting mines. This task is assigned to various anti-mine vessels, which can either independently or jointly with mine-sweeping helicopters destroy enemy mines and defend their own communication lines.

Naval aviation. Naval aircraft are chiefly intended for attacking mobile targets, such as striking surface warships, submarines, transports and other highly manoeuvrable, small-size objectives. The naval aviation therefore includes missile-carrying, anti-submarine, reconnaissance, and other types of planes.

Missile-carrying planes possess considerable flying range and high speed and carry tracking devices and different types of missiles. They can deal powerful blows against all kinds of naval and ground objectives, e. g., ships and convoys in remote areas of the ocean, and also against ports and naval bases, without entering zones of effective enemy anti-aircraft fire. Today, the Navy's major task is to fight nuclear missile

submarines. Hence the increasing significance of anti-submarine aviation, including ship-based planes and helicopters capable of effectively hunting down and destroying underwater craft in the ocean.

Coastal rocket and conventional artillery units are armed with modern missile launchers and artillery guns. They are designed for defending naval bases and strategically important coastal areas and islands from sea attack, and can also be used for supporting land forces operating in maritime regions.

Coastal missile systems provide long-range fire, high hitting probability, and great destructive effect. They considerably strengthen coastal defences and make it possible to hit enemy vessels at remote distances. At the same time, however, conventional coastal artillery is still an effective means for hitting surface and land targets. As a matter of fact, modern warships have insignificant armour and are susceptible to damage by conventional artillery shells; this particularly concerns their above-water sections and the very vulnerable radioelectronic and other equipment installed on the decks and superstructures.

Marines. The heroic traditions of Soviet marines go back to previous generations of naval infantry. The marines are chiefly used as landing task forces, and are armed with amphibious and all-terrain tanks, armoured personnel carriers, and artillery. With this equipment the marines, supported by other units, can quickly land on enemy-held coasts, break through, and swiftly advance.

Marines are armed with modern weapons, use specialised landing craft and receive powerful naval backing; all this has greatly expanded the Navy's capability to land troops and conduct joint operations with land forces.

Marines are skilled in the use of small arms, bayonets, and grenades, and can quickly dig in. Special landing and physical training are very important elements in their daily routine. They are tireless in battle, can climb cliffs as well as mountaineers, swim with their combat kit and jump with a parachute. Soviet marines wear a uniform combining the Russian naval tradition with that of former naval infantrymen. They take special pride in wearing a sleeve badge bearing a gold anchor in a red circle, their distinctive insignia.

All naval activity is essentially connected with radioelectronic instruments, automatic devices, and other special equipment.

Modern warships have numerous highly reliable long-range radar and other systems for accurately measuring target coordinates. Today, no officer can fire a naval weapon without first analysing the data of stations.

Hydroacoustic instruments are used by all submarines, surface craft, planes, helicopters, and on-site installations for the clarification of underwater situations, submarine and surface craft detection, mine search, navigation, and salvaging.

Controlling naval units over vast sea and ocean areas is indeed a formidable task. All means of communication must provide simultaneous control of surface craft and submarines, of aircraft and coastal units. Today, Soviet naval command posts, warships and planes are all equipped with powerful communications providing reliable guidance at any distance.

Modern naval construction involves the manufacture of new navigation instruments. The Soviet Navy has a wide variety of high-precision and concealed navigation aids based on the latest advances in physics, mathematics, electronics, gyroscopy, hydrodynamics, automation, and other sciences.

Navigation instruments on board nuclear submarines ensure reliable navigation at any point of the globe, including under ice in the Arctic.

L. Zhiltsov, former commander of the nuclear submarine *Leninsky Komsomol,* assessed as follows the work of his instruments during a voyage near the North Pole in 1962: "The navigator and all those present in the central control post expressed their great delight: the instrument readings were absolutely correct. There is no denying it, Soviet scientists and engineers have developed excellent instruments." (Conventional magnetic devices are unusable near the Pole.)

As a result of modernisation, auxiliary naval vessels supporting the routine and combat operations of surface ships and submarines have also acquired new qualities. This group of vessels includes supply ships, transports and tankers, hydrographic and salvage boats, depot ships and workshops, floating docks and cranes, tugboats, and so on.

Supply ships deliver munitions, food products, water, fuel and other materials at sea. They can follow warships and

carry all the necessary stocks to any distance even in extremely difficult conditions.

Depot ships serve as bases and docks for ships at sea; they also provide services for the personnel. The necessity to build and use them was caused by the fact that, unlike imperialist powers, the USSR has neither bases nor territories overseas.

Thus, the USSR has a modern ocean-going Navy equipped with everything needed to ensure the nation's security against sea attack. Together with other arms and services, it is a powerful factor in creating favourable conditions for building socialism and communism, a factor of active defence of peace and consolidation of international security. Soviet naval development and constant presence in the World Ocean is but a response to the openly aggressive designs of world imperialism against the USSR.

4. Soviet Navymen – Loyal Sons of the Nation

No matter how advanced the Navy may be technologically and what powerful weapons it may have, human beings will always constitute its foundation. With further naval development, the role of specialists skilled in the most effective use of weapons and mechanisms will continue to grow.

In the USSR, defence of the socialist Homeland is a national concern. "Military service in the ranks of the Armed Forces of the USSR is an honourable duty of Soviet citizens." [1] Soviet naval personnel include representatives of the country's numerous nationalities and all sections of the population.

The Soviet Navy has well-trained sailors, petty officers, warrant officers, officers and admirals, all of whom are boundlessly devoted to their country and the great ideals of communism.

The growth of educational levels has caused big changes among naval personnel. Whereas in 1939 more than half had only primary schooling, today almost all have higher, secondary or incomplete secondary education. Communists and Young Communist League (Komsomol) members account

[1] *Constitution (Fundamental Law) of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics*, Moscow, 1977, p. 51.

for 90 per cent of all naval personnel and constitute their nucleus. Nearly 100 per cent of ship officers have a college education, over half of them majored in engineering.

The Navy's backbone is its officer corps. Soviet naval officers are politically mature, devoted to the communist cause, and highly qualified professionally. They can confidently fulfil all their complex and responsible tasks. Most of them are young men representing the Navy's present and future. The majority of unit and ship commanders were born after World War II. Successors of frontline soldiers, they serve alongside experienced commanders. The Navy's strength is based on the inseparable unity of generations and rationally combined efforts of experienced and young cadres.

Soviet officers and sailors have a common Marxist-Leninist ideology, and are firmly united by this ideology and their aspiration for the victory of communism. Their relationships are based on class unity and deep mutual respect. The just and noble character of the goals and tasks of the Soviet Navy, as well as the feelings of affection which it enjoys on the part of the people, impart to the Navymen tremendous energy, a high sense of duty, and a desire to incessantly improve their combat efficiency.

The role of ship commander is of paramount importance. He organises the crew's training and education and bears the responsibility for the life of his subordinates and their high combat readiness. During lengthy voyages, the commander must show self-reliance and initiative, and act correctly and resolutely when need be. No wonder sailors say the commander is the soul and will of the ship, her courage, intellect and conscience.

Soviet naval commanders are not only good specialists, but also politically experienced organisers and educators. In their activity, they rely on Party and Young Communist League organisations, which, in turn, resolutely support exacting and strong-willed commanders and teach the personnel to respect them and fulfil their orders by every means. Respect for the commander as one's educator, senior comrade and experienced supervisor is one of the finest traditions in the Soviet Navy. Many commanders have been decorated with government awards, including the new Order "For Service to the Homeland in the Armed Forces".

Warrant officers[1] constitute a big contingent of naval commanders and are the officers' closest assistants. On board ship, a warrant officer must have excellent knowledge of all equipment and directly train and educate sailors and petty officers. Most warrant officers are young men with specialised schooling, and one-third of their number are members of the Communist Party.

An important stanchion of the men's morale is their awareness of the Navy's inseparable unity with the people. This idea was expressed well by Captain lst rank A. S. Kovalchuk, delegate to the 25th CPSU Congress, when he addressed a meeting of factory workers and said: "Compared with all the Armed Forces, my warship is only a drop in the ocean, so to speak. But, just as a drop reflects the entire ocean, the efforts of all Soviet servicemen are reflected in the deeds of my crew. And we clearly realise that our service in the Navy merges with the work of all the people. That is why we incessantly strive to move onwards to keep pace with the nation."

The links between the Navy and the people are numerous and have diverse forms. Soviet Navymen are active in the work of Communist Party, Soviet and public organisations. Nineteen Navymen are deputies of the USSR Supreme Soviet and the Supreme Soviets of Union Republics, and more than 770 are deputies of local Soviets.

Naval crews have close ties with factories, collective farms and schools. The Komsomol has patronised the Navy for over fifty years now, and there is no ship today that does not have strong ties with Komsomol organisations of Union Republics, regions, cities, factories, collective farms, and construction sites. This is seen in the names of many warships, e. g., *Komsomolets Ukrainy, Komsomolets Latvii, Chelyabinsky Komsomolets, Sakhalinsky Komsomolets,* and so on.

Soviet Navymen often meet with scientists, writers, artists, actors, sportsmen, and front-rank workers and farmers, and all these meetings are always very interesting.

Navy Day is an annual Soviet holiday. On that day, numerous delegations visit warships on behalf of regions, cities, enterprises, collective farms and schools, and

[1] Warrant officer is a rank in the Soviet Navy close to that of junior officer. Warrant officers under 35 volunteer for service for at least five years.

Navymen visit different regions of the country on the invitation of civilian organisations. To cite just two examples, the Kronstadt naval base has for several decades maintained friendly ties with Kazakhstan, and the cruiser *Sverdlov* with the youth organisations of the Altai Territory. The working people of Moscow are patrons of the anti-submarine cruiser *Moskva*, and the Young Communist League members of Leningrad are good friends with the crew of *Leningrad*, another anti-submarine cruiser. Mass meetings in Sevastopol, Murmansk, Vladivostok, Kaliningrad and other port cities with Navymen just back from remote voyages, manoeuvres and exercises show the people's concern and affection for the Navy.

Soviet navymen have another fine tradition of marking portentous national events by reporting to the CPSU Central Committee and Soviet government on performance of their duty of safeguarding Soviet sea frontiers. Such reports were made on the occasion of the centenary of Lenin's birth, the 25th CPSU Congress, the 60th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, and the 60th anniversary of the Soviet Armed Forces. The crew of *Krasny Krym*, a large Guards anti-submarine vessel, are particularly proud and happy to report their achievements to Leonid Brezhnev, General Secretary of the Soviet Communist Party and Chairman of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet, who since 1974 has been an honorary crew member. When visiting the ship, Leonid Brezhnev was presented with a Guards breast-plate and a cap with Guards ribbon.

5. A School of Political and Combat Training

A major condition of constant fighting readiness of ships involves a high level of training in navigation and combat, particularly during remote voyages. The ocean examines and teaches the men to boost their unity. Ocean voyages foster such important traits as audacity, will-power, resoluteness and sense of duty; they teach the men to surmount all difficulties in highly variable conditions ranging from polar to tropical. In remote expeditions the men improve their tactical skills and ability to use their combat equipment; they also check the navigational qualities of their ships and the reliabi-

lity of mechanisms and technical devices. But, as the popular saying goes, expeditions begin ashore. In other words, before the ship weighs anchor, the crew must undergo all-round training and the equipment be set ready for combat. It is of paramount importance for the personnel to receive special training before going to sea, since operating all the sophisticated control instruments, calculating devices, missile systems, radars, hydroacoustic contrivances, all kinds of engines, and various auxiliary systems require vast knowledge and reliable maintenance skills. Hence, the ship commander, unit commanders and political officers do their utmost to give the men highly effective combat and special training involving maximum use of equipment.

Socialist emulation is a tested expedient for mobilising the personnel to improve their combat skills and efforts for immaculately implementing their tasks in remote voyages. Emulation is based on Leninist concepts of the necessity for all-round development of the movement for a communist attitude towards labour. It is a patriotic movement engendering new creative beginnings and additional moral incentives for promoting increasingly active work. It is simultaneously friendly competition and comradely mutual aid.

On warships, emulation is organised among sailors, petty officers, warrant officers and officers of affiliated specialities, and also among battle stations, compartments, teams, units, and shifts. All those taking part compete in cutting the time needed for preparing equipment for combat, in faultless maintenance of the equipment, in improving qualifications, in developing rationalisation and invention, and in saving fuel and lubricants. Emulation among different specialists, e. g., operators of hydroacoustic devices, gunners, miners, motorists, etc., for the right to be called successors of heroes of the Great Patriotic War of 1941–1945 has also become widespread among sailors and petty officers. For instance, hydroacoustic device operators of all submarines in the Northern Fleet compete for the right to be called successors of Anatoly Shumikhin, the best war-time operator.

Combat training experience shows that there are virtually no bounds for perfecting skills. Having qualified as lst class specialists in their second year of service, many of the sailors and petty officers successfully master a related profession. Knowledge of several specialities enables them to cope with any, even the most complex, situation, and when need be, to

replace a shipmate at some other battle station. This is especially common on small ships and submarines, where the crews are not numerous, and disablement of even a few men affects combat efficiency.

Success of emulation is largely ensured by publicly comparing the results and encouraging the winners. For instance, the submarine *Fifty Years of the USSR* has instituted cups "To Best Combat Shift for Excellent Knowledge, Maintenance and Skilled Operation of Weapons and Equipment" and pennants "To Best Compartment", "To Best Specialist" and "To Best Inventor and Rationaliser". Pictures of sailors and petty officers who win and also of those who perform well during remote voyages are taken on the background of the Soviet naval ensign, and the men are awarded diplomas briefly describing their achievements.

Here is just a very short episode of combat training aboard the cruiser *Admiral Golovko*.

Practice alarm! All the men instantly swarm over the decks, superstructures, platforms, and gangways. A minute or two later all is quiet again, with not a soul on the upper deck. But the ship is alive: the crew has merged with the metal turrets, range finders and radar aerials, which all begin to move as the vessel puts on speed.

Transition firing practice begins. The target shield is about to emerge from behind the skyline, and in the subsequent short minutes the gunners will show all the skills they have acquired during long hours of practice.

Siren! The cruiser shudders, and water columns rise as missiles explode by the moving shield. Simultaneously, in the lower compartments, emergency teams start pumping off water and fighting fires.

Firing practice is over, but the atmosphere of tension remains. "Man overboard!", sounds the new warning, and the men now show their ability to use life-boats and other survival aids. From acorn to keel, from stempost to flagpole they train and learn. The sea likes hardworking people, and hard work gives results. No wonder, *Admiral Golovko* had twice won the Soviet Navy prize for missile firing.

The sea is severe and unpredictable. During expeditions, situations arise when the men must show maximum alertness and genuine heroism. Here is an example. The storm swooped down unexpectedly, and the submarine had to hide from the wind and drop anchor. But when the next alarm

ordered the men to take their posts again, the boat could not weigh anchor. Only after Warrant Officer A. Shadrin, the bosun, had switched on the capstan to full, the anchor started to emerge, tangled up in a steel rope. It was not at all easy to disentangle it in the rising storm and, after the commander gave permission, Shadrin put on his protective overalls and went overboard into the raging waves. He freed the anchor, the ship specialists completed the operation, and the submarine continued its way.

Mutual comradely assistance and collectivism are golden maxims of Soviet Navymen. To illustrate this, here is another episode. During an expedition, urgent work had to be done on deck, and Senior Lieutenant V. Dorodnykh and Warrant Officer V. Bozhok were assigned. When the job was nearing completion, a huge wave washed across the vessel and swept the two men overboard. Bozhok was concussed and began to drown. Dorodnykh was also stunned, but strained every muscle to keep his shipmate afloat. Then their comrades came to the rescue, and both men were saved.

The crew of a Soviet warship are one single family. All the men, from sailor to commander, are proud of their service. "The ship's honour is my honour, the crew's glory is my glory" is the motto of Soviet Navymen. The achievement of each man is justly regarded to do credit to all the crew, and the concern of one is the concern of all, on all warships.

After distant voyages, the crews return to their bases solidly united and better trained, with more men having acquired high-class qualifications.

In the course of ocean expeditions, the *Leninets, Leninsky Komsomol* and *Krasnogvardeyets,* three Northern Fleet nuclear submarines; the *Varyag*, a Pacific Fleet cruiser; and the *Oktyabrskaya Revolutsiya*, a Baltic Sea crusier, have all time and again emerged victors in socialist emulation.

The sea has seasoned the professional skills of the men from the *Ochakov,* a Black Sea big anti-submarine ship named in honour of the legendary cruiser *Ochakov,* which during the first Russian Revolution of 1905 hoisted the red flag on the Black Sea. The present-day *Ochakov* crew reverently observe the traditions of their forefathers, devoting all their strength for service to the nation. The ship has made an excellent showing for several years running. The achievements of such ships serve as examples for other crews who

strive to keep pace with front-rank vessels and not to lag in combat training.

Soviet Navymen justly maintain that it is no longer enough in this day and age to be able to just sail long distances without stopping. They know that to acquire high battle readiness they must practice to operate jointly with other arms of the Navy under changing and most adverse conditions. That is why regular exercises are held to test and further improve combat and operational training of ships and naval staffs.

"Ocean" was the code name of the largest post-war Soviet naval exercises in April-May 1970 and, like many other exercises in recent years, involved the participation of surface ships, submarines, planes and marines.

Exercises are held in varying weather conditions, including stormy weather. It is noteworthy that ships which have gone on complex distant voyages make the best showings during exercises.

The anti-submarine cruiser *Leningrad* is noted for its high training level. During exercises the crew is always faced with complex tactical situations involving increasingly varying conditions which may possibly arise in real action. Undermanned teams have to fire simultaneously at several "targets", eliminate "damages", and help the "wounded". The men thus receive an opportunity to approach the very essence of a modern naval battle. During the "Ocean" exercises nuclear submarines, cruisers, anti-submarine ships, amphibious craft and marines also showed well in missile firing, gunnery, and other combat training.

Exercises provide opportunities for the ships and units to sum up and popularise progressive methods, master new tactics, check command efficiency, and improve educational methods.

The resulting experience is then introduced into operational and combat training on all the fleets.

The "Ocean" exercises and the large-scale "South" and other exercises, which were systematically staged by all the fleets, showed a constant improvement in the training levels of naval personnel and their readiness to repel aggression from the sea.

The Soviet Navy has a tradition of completing the year with all-Navy competitions in firing and tactical training. These are finals in which the crews are tested for combat

readiness and commanders for tactical skill. They make it possible not only to identify the best ships, but to extensively summarise and introduce into practice progressive methods of training and educating the men.

Commanders qualified for the finals take a difficult examination, in which they must display tactical art, effective handling of naval weapons, and efficient operation of the commanding centre. The contest is becoming increasingly difficult from year to year, and practice shows that no one can count on easy success. All the examinees have to look for new tactical methods and best employment of the arms and technical facilities.

The cruiser *Grozny* has repeatedly won the Navy's prizes for missile training, and no wonder the crew are generally regarded as capable of solving the most complex tactical tasks. The commander and the ship's Party organisation look upon the competitions as an important means for attaining high combat readiness. The men take part in professional groups and quizes and compete for "best specialist" titles. Comradely mutual assistance allows young sailors to improve their class. For high results in training, the USSR Defence Minister awarded the *Grozny* the pennant "For Courage and Valour".[1]

Military service is an important period in the life of every young Soviet man. Much of what is acquired during the years of service remains with him all his life. Youths join the services without any real experience of life, but are discharged endured and disciplined after receiving a thorough specialised and political training.

Indeed it was the services that hardened the will-power of cosmonauts and submariners and moulded the characters of many of the pioneers of virgin lands and builders of Bratsk and other Siberian towns, and of those who are presently building the great Baikal-Amur Railway.

Today a new generation of Soviet youths are getting the same schooling. Service in the Navy develops the ability to understand life, fosters a serious attitude towards work in general and one's job in particular, and perfects and consolidates all the qualities a serviceman and future worker needs.

[1] The pennant "For Courage and Valour" is awarded to formations, units and ships that have distinguished themselves in fulfilling assignments of the Soviet government and the USSR Minister of Defence, and also during exercises and expeditions.

Service in the Navy demands of every man not only skill in handling equipment, but high moral and physical effort. Nuclear propulsion plants and sophisticated missile systems and computers, as well as lengthy voyages and constant struggle with the elements have immeasurably increased the requirements to moral, fighting and psychological traits. The history of the Navy has not known such high requirements to morale as those existing today, and this is certainly taken into account in moral, political and psychological training.

Self-control, discipline and courage are developed in the course of a many-sided process forming an integral part of the entire system of combat and political training, education and routine. As was mentioned above, lengthy voyages and exercises are very helpful in seasoning the men. A major condition for fostering high combat efficiency on board ship is the strict observance of regulations, high discipline and the requirements of the oath of allegiance.

All these traits are essentially based on a Marxist-Leninist ideology and profound understanding of one's responsibility for the destinies of the country. Political consciousness is the foundation of military morale, and today Lenin's words that "in the final analysis, victory in any war depends on the spirit animating the masses that spill their own blood on the field of battle"[1] sound with renewed force.

Commanders, political officers and Party organisations do their best to make every man understand his place in the people's endeavour to build a communist society and to correctly assess domestic and international events, to foster his personal responsibility for the nation's destinies. When asked whether he had found the last exercises difficult, Vladimir Ramenskikh, a sailor from a Baltic missile-carrying torpedo boat, replied: "Frankly, there were moments when I felt my strength was about to wane and I could hardly stand it any longer. But then I recalled the wartime fight of Baltic Fleet sailors, and they were boys like us. Many of them were also twenty. It was a hundred times more difficult for them, and yet they won. But we aren't any worse, are we? The ability to defend our land is the sacred duty of every Soviet citizen."

[1] V. I. Lenin, "Speech at an Enlarged Conference of Workers and Red Army Men in Rogozhsko-Simonovsky District of Moscow. May 13, 1920", *Collected Works*, Vol. 31, p. 137.

The forms and methods of educating naval personnel are diverse, and one of the most important is political education. Propaganda through lectures, talks, political briefings, wall newspapers, visual aids, books, newspapers and magazines plays a significant role.

Soviet Navymen have broad and diverse interests. Lectures on international relations, domestic politics, on life in the armed forces, etc., have gained their merited recognition. Talks and lectures on Lenin's ideological legacy are very popular, too. The men also like to go to meetings of questions and answers and to take part in debates on such topics as "On Friendship and Comradeship", "Our Contemporary", "Are You Happy in Life?", and so on.

Cultural and educational work is an important part of ideological training. Its aim is to acquaint the men with the achievements of art, literature, and science, and to educate them aesthetically.

On shore, the principal recreational institutions are officers' clubs, sailors' clubs, Navy theatres, song and dance companies, museums and rooms of battle glory, and, on board ship, clubs, recreation rooms, and libraries.

Amateur groups and clubs are the most widespread and popular form of cultural and educational work. They help unite the men, foster good taste, and improve their cultural levels. In distant voyages, a sailor's fiery dance, a lively song, and a good joke are always welcome for relaxing the men and boosting their morale. In line with an old naval tradition, they like to sing together somewhere on the upper deck or in some compartment. Far from native shores, the familiar words and melodies acquire a special meaning and imbue the men's hearts and souls.

When free from duty, the men enjoy listening to the radio and watching films and TV, including such feature programmes as "Serving the Soviet Union" and "Music for Your Asking". The routine of distant voyages is brightened up by festivals to mark crossing of the Equator or the International Date Line, or passage from ocean to ocean. The Neptune Festival to mark the crossing of the Equator is always a lot of fun at which the men receive "Neptune Diplomas" and souvenirs.

Books, too, are an important part of cultural and educational work. Every vessel has a library, and every library has books on higher mathematics, physics, radioelectronics, philosophy, political economy and history, on military service and engineering. There is always literature in the languages of the peoples of the USSR, and foreign authors are widely represented.

Soviet patriotism is based on the principle that love for the native land, its language, culture and history, and respect for revolutionary and national traditions are combined with loyalty to the Communist Party, Soviet government, and people. Soviet patriotism is a source of mass heroism in war and selfless service in peacetime. That is why commanders, political officers and Party and Komsomol organisations devote much attention to patriotic education.

The patriotism of Soviet Navymen was displayed in all its greatness during the last war, and no wonder political officers frequently mention those events in their talks and lectures. Many warships keep logs and calendars of battle glory in which they record the most conspicuous events in the Navy's and ship's history.

Soviet Navymen also pay tribute to ships that perished during the last war. Orders of fleet commanders have proclaimed as "coordinates of battle glory" the sites where Soviet ships had died in battle or had won victories. When warships pass the former places they fly flags at half-mast, and the men lower wreaths overboard.

The Soviet Navy has a tradition of giving ships the names of their heroic predecessors. Today, the Navy boasts of new modern vessels named in honour of predecessors, e.g., the Guards missile cruiser *Varyag*, the anti-submarine ships *Gremyashchy*, *Krasny Kavkaz* and *Soobrazitelny*, and the submarines *Krasnogvardeyets* and *Leninsky Komsomol*.

Annual festivals have very important significance for strengthening fighting traditions and fostering affection for one's ship. They are celebrated on the orders of the USSR Minister of Defence to mark auspicious occasions, such as commissioning and making the colours, awarding of orders to the ship or giving it the Guards title. Before and during the festival, the commanders and political officers give talks about the ship's history. Parades, sporting events, performances, and meetings with war veterans and best servicemen are held, and the day is also marked by a festive dinner.

Naval museums do much to popularise combat and revolutionary traditions. The Central Naval Museum established in the early 18th century is one of the country's most popu-

lar cultural and educational institutions, and one of the largest of its kind. It displays more than 500,000 items and exhibits relating to the history of the Russian Navy, and more than a million people visit it every year.

Fleet museums in Sevastopol, Vladivostok, Murmansk, Tallinn, Baku, Leningrad and Baltiisk have also become important centres popularising the traditions of the Soviet Navy. On warships, such centres are called rooms and cabins of battle glory.

Memorial ships are also very popular, and all those who come to Leningrad always visit one of them, the legendary cruiser *Aurora* which took active part in the 1917 October armed uprising that led to the victory of the socialist revolution in Russia.

Another memorial museum is the Guards submarine *S-56*. It fought heroically against the nazis and, for distinguished service and in commemoration of the 30th Anniversary of the Victory, has been placed on a pedestal of eternal glory in Vladivostok. Warships and torpedo boats commemorating the wartime heroism of Soviet Navymen have also been set on pedestals in Leningrad, Kiev, Novorossiisk, Khabarovsk, Feodosiya, and other places.

In distant voyages, successful fulfilment of assignments largely depends on the health of the crew, on their ability to endure big physical loads. Hence, the men's physical development, routine, sanitation and hygiene are matters of constant concern of commanders, political officers and ship physicians.

The sailor is traditionally regarded as the smartest and toughest. Yet, the naval uniform does not automatically give these qualities, which come with the gruelling toils of service. Physical training is an important aspect of combat training. No matter whether the ship is at sea or base, the men's daily routine begins with morning exercises. Even small vessels have special gyms for working with weights, on the bars, etc. During lengthy voyages, submarine crews perform their own, specially devised, physical exercises.

The Navy has quite many ships where most of the men are athletes with impressive records. Seamen naturally like swimming, sculling, underwater swimming, water skiing, and other aquatic sports, and it is no wonder that naval sportsmen have repeatedly won national, European and world titles in water polo, yachting, rowing, and speedboat

racing. To preserve the men's health, medical check-ups and examinations are held regularly to make sure the condition and physique of every sailor and officer are good.

During distant voyages, urgent medical aid can always be given, since every vessel has a surgeon on board.

Another daily concern of commanders and political officers is to provide the men with varied and tasty food and, like gunners, torpedomen, motormen and others compete for title of "best specialist", cooks contend for title of "best ship cook".

Ship Communist Party organisations play a prominent role in improving training and combat readiness. Communists are the commanding officer's support; they are always in the forefront, in places where the situation is most difficult. This brings them high prestige among the crew. Communists are the best ship specialists; they are foremost in training, and by their personal example they fill the men with enthusiasm for improving training, strengthening discipline, and heightening vigilance.

Communist organisations always centre their attention on educating the men in a spirit of Soviet patriotism and internationalism.

Komsomol organisations help commanders and Party organisations educate and season young sailors. Komsomols initiate many beginnings aimed at achieving high results in combat training. They are active in organising contests for "best specialist" titles and "hit-target-with-first-missile" contests; they are the first in mastering related professions and strive for overall interchangeability of battle-post operators. Ship Komsomols are also very active in organising recreation, sporting events, amateur performances and numerous other activities that promote friendship and unity among young servicemen.

Having served their time, the men transferred to the reserve return home. But the training they had received stays with them all their life. Here is what Petty Officer (Reserve) O. Nikashidze wrote to his former commanding officer: "Yesterday I saw you on television, and felt as if I were with you once again. If and when you come to Batumi, please be my guest. You will see how my training helps me in my work. I shall never forget the way you looked after us sailors." And Yuri Grudnev, former Petty Officer in charge of a team of motormen, addressed the following message from

far-away Siberia to his former shipmates on the *Storm,* a Baltic missile ship: "Dear friends, I must frankly admit that my heart is always with you... I am now a tractor operator, and my naval training helps me as never before. Thank you all ever so much."

In Chapaevka, a village in Zaporozhye Region in the Ukraine, they say that to "work navywise" means to work well. Former Navymen are the most distinguished workers, and their photographs have been put up on the collective farm's Board of Honour. In Chapaevka, the collective farmers have named one of the streets Navy Street to mark Navy Day and the outstanding merits in farming of former servicemen, their fellow-villagers. Navy reservists are welcome everywhere—at factories, plants, state and collective farms—and are always front-rank workers.

6. Military Cooperation with Fraternal Armies and Navies of Socialist Countries

Besides land and air forces, the united armed forces of the Warsaw Treaty countries include naval forces, which are capable of fulfilling various tasks in the most complex situations. Over the years, varied forms of cooperation have been developed to help resolve common problems and strengthen cooperation among allied armies and navies. These forms and methods include exchange of administrative experience, coordination of military engineering, operational policies, military science and combat training, and contacts among political bodies of the armed forces.

Joint exercises and exchanges in experience on combat training and education are also major cooperation trends. Recent big joint land exercises were Fraternity in Arms, Shield-76, Soyuz-77 and Soyuz-78.

The navies of Warsaw Treaty allies, Bulgaria, the German Democratic Republic, Poland, Romania and the USSR, also hold joint exercises, which help the Navymen to know each other better, jointly master the art of modern naval warfare, be better aware of their internationalist duty and become increasingly imbued with feelings of friendship, mutual respect, trust and understanding.

Meetings of top servicemen and high-class specialists are always interesting. At these meetings, the men share their experience and come to know each other better.

"North" was the name of the biggest joint naval exercises of the GDR, Poland and the USSR. The manoeuvres were held in the North Atlantic and the Norwegian, Barents and Baltic seas under Admiral of the Fleet of the Soviet Union S. G. Gorshkov, Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Navy. The main purpose was to improve combat readiness for repelling aggression from the sea. Vice-Admiral Zdzislaw Studzinski, then Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Navy, made the following assessment of the event: "Our exercises are aimed at improving the combat skills and interaction of our forces. We have no intentions of threatening anyone, but neither do we want to conceal our might and ability to defend our peoples from any aggression from the sea."[1]

The political bodies of the Warsaw Treaty navies have broad ties. The Central Committees of fraternal Marxist-Leninist parties give constant attention to Party and political work in the armed forces and direct the activities of all the political sections and Party and youth organisations. Army and Navy Party organisations educate the men in a spirit of devotion to socialism and proletarian internationalism.

Meetings of the political officers of Warsaw Treaty navies are held on a regular basis. In 1974, for instance, they met in Tallinn for a broad exchange of experience in Party and political work, and in June 1976 they held another meeting in Leningrad to share experience in Party, political, ideological and moral education and combat training.

Contacts among naval Komsomol and other youth organisations are also constantly growing. Naval youth activists from the GDR, Poland and the Soviet Baltic Fleet held an interesting meeting, at which they discussed how to make youth union members become exemplary in fulfilling their socialist obligations. Best Navymen received special badges for outstanding results in combat and political training.

Gatherings, friendship assemblies, amateur performances, and excursions to historic battle sites help unite the men in a spirit of internationalism.

The editorial boards of naval newspapers have close contacts, too. For instance, *Flag Rodiny,* the Soviet Black Sea

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[1] V. Goltsev, *Bolshiye Manevry* (Big Manoeuvres), Moscow, 1971, p. 37 (in Russian).

Fleet newspaper, and *Dmitrovska Vakhta,* the Bulgarian naval newspaper, sometimes publish joint issues and exchange materials on vital problems of collaboration.

The Soviet Naval Academy and naval colleges help train highly qualified personnel for the fleets of fraternal socialist countries. The GDR government, for instance, gave a high appraisal of the Soviet Naval Academy and the Caspian Naval College for their contribution to training officers for the GDR People's Navy, and awarded both institutions the Order "For Service to the People and Fatherland". The Bulgarian government decorated the Soviet Naval Academy with the Order "People's Republic of Bulgaria" (First Class) for training highly qualified personnel for the Bulgarian Navy.

Diverse forms and methods are used for educating Soviet Navymen in a spirit of socialist internationalism. They study the economic successes of socialist countries, as well as their state systems, laws, customs and military history.

Joint exercises and other activities are a real school for strengthening friendship and camaraderie among allied Navymen, who see in each other trustworthy brothers-in-arms. Like all Soviet servicemen, Navymen fulfil their patriotic and internationalist duty with a high sense of responsibility.

* * *

Night and day the Soviet Navy patrols the oceans to safeguard the peaceful labour of the Soviet people. New generations of seamen continue the glorious fighting traditions of their forefathers, who had taken up arms in defence of the freedom and independence of the USSR.

In their daily routine, the men show a high sense of responsibility and courage. This is seen in the selfless work of torpedomen, who in peacetime continued clearing fairways, ports and harbours of mines, the grim relics of the last war.

Like in the war years, the Soviet government decorates the men for distinguished service. For exploits in peacetime, more than 20 Navymen have been awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union, and many admirals, officers and sailors have received orders and medals. The crews of nuclear submarines which sailed under ice in the Arctic and hoisted the Soviet national and naval flags on the North Pole were all decorated with orders and medals. Submariners who sailed around the world received high government awards, too.

CHAPTER IV

PEACEFUL MISSION ON THE SEAS AND OCEANS

1. For Peace in the Mediterranean

In combining its struggle for peace and consolidation of international security with boosting its defences, the USSR has never set itself expansionist aims. In the military field, Soviet efforts are solely directed at defending and securing the nation and its socialist friends and allies from possible aggression and at promoting world peace, and the presence of Soviet warships in the Mediterranean serves precisely these purposes.

The Soviet state is not at all indifferent to the fact that the situation in the Mediterranean, the sector bordering close on the USSR's southern frontiers, especially the situation in the Middle East, has for many years been tense and explosive. The USSR has taken all possible measures not to allow critical situations and armed conflicts in the area to develop into a big war.

The tension and dangerous conflicts in the Middle East are chiefly due to policies of imperialist powers directed against national independence and progress. In the first postwar years, the key positions in the Mediterranean were still held by Britain, an old colonial power, whose strong points were Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus and Haifa. In those days, Egypt and the Suez Canal, as well as certain bases in Italy and Greece, were also under British control. Britain had considerable influence on the reactionary ruling circles of Spain, Greece, Turkey and some other countries, and this helped

her retain her positions in the area. France, too, continued for some time to keep her North African colonies.

However, under the pressure of national liberation movements, the old colonial powers began to lose their positions in the Mediterranean, where new independent states had arisen after liberating themselves from colonial yoke. At the same time, the United States began penetrating into the area. The post-war presence of American troops in France, Italy and some North African countries and US economic aid under the Marshall Plan to war-enfeebled capitalist countries were used by the US imperialists to strengthen and expand their influence in the Mediterranean.

American positions there became even stronger after the creation of the aggressive North Atlantic Treaty Organisation. NATO was aimed against socialist countries, and also against democratic forces in the NATO countries themselves and national liberation movements in colonies and dependent countries. In the beginning of the '50s, all European capitalist states in the Mediterranean were bound to America by different agreements and military commitments. [1] Under these agreements, the United States obtained the right to station land, air and naval forces in many Mediterranean countries, and America quickly exploited this right to increase her presence, primarily naval presence, to which the USA attaches high significance in its policies in the area.

In Chapter 3, we had already referred to the US 6th Fleet, NATO's main striking force in the Mediterranean. Apart from it, since 1963, several American nuclear submarines armed with ballistic missiles have made daily patrols of the area.

In the Mediterranean, US naval units make wide use of ports and bases in Italy, Greece and Turkey. At the same time, America has built new naval and air bases in Rota, not far from Cadiz, Spain, and in Maddalena Island, Italy, both specially for nuclear missile-carrying submarines.

Italy, Greece and Turkey, all three America's NATO partners, also have fleets in the Mediterranean, the strongest being the Italian Navy. British naval forces in the area are based in Gibraltar, Cyprus and Malta. In peacetime, the fleets of the Mediterranean NATO countries are not officially under NATO command, but in wartime they are to be placed under the South European Naval Command.

Under the pretext of offsetting a mythical "Soviet threat", the NATO leaders have for many years been mounting their naval activity in the Mediterranean, which they regard as a convenient spring-board for striking blows from missile-carrying submarines and aircraft carriers against objectives in socialist countries and other regions. The warships and aircraft of the US 6th Fleet are used for controlling important sea, air and land communications between Europe, Asia and Africa.

Armed force is not infrequently used by the aggressive NATO circles to exert political pressure on the peoples and governments of Mediterranean countries, and this leads to sharp conflicts, dangerously aggravates the situation in the area and creates great difficulties for progressive regimes engaged in social and economic reforms.

The reactionary NATO policies led to the spring 1967 coup d'état in Greece and the take-over by a military junta. Outright military pressure and direct armed intervention were used by the imperialists against Arab countries, which had begun their struggle for complete independence and freedom from imperialist exploitation. Repeated US, British and Israeli invasions of Mideast Arab countries aggravated the situation in the Mediterranean and caused international crises.

The 1967 and 1973 Arab-Israeli conflicts were particularly dangerous. Israel's policies were aimed at occupying foreign lands and staging armed provocations against neighbouring countries and the people of Palestine, who had been ousted from their native soil. The Israeli aggression against those Arab states that had started progressive social and economic reforms was organised by international imperialism and the reactionary Zionist leaders of Israel. With the support of the West, primarily the United States, Israeli ruling circles had within a short period of time built modern armed forces equipped with aircraft, tanks, submarines and missiles.

In spring 1967, Israel's military provocations against Syria and other Arab nations sharply aggravated the situation in the Middle East. Under the pretext of evacuating American and British citizens and UN personnel, the United States and

[1] American attempts to drag Spain into NATO failed, but in 1953 Washington and Madrid signed an agreement on joint use of Spanish naval and air bases and on US economic and technical aid.

Britain began massing aircraft carriers, destroyers, amphibious vessels with marines on board, and other units in the East Mediterranean. On June 5, 1967, Israel started its long-prepared attack against Egypt, Syria and Jordan. Israeli planes struck unexpectedly, destroying the bulk of Egypt's aviation and other equipment. Arab troops could not hold the desert front without air support, and in just a few days the Israelis had occupied a major part of Sinai, reached the Suez Canal, and advanced inside Syria and Jordan. The Arabs were confronted with a serious danger: using Israel as its instrument, international imperialism threatened to topple progressive regimes and to establish an order that would suit foreign oil companies.

The USSR immediately took resolute steps to stop the aggressor. On Soviet initiative, the UN Security Council was convened in extraordinary session and demanded that all hostilities in the area be stopped.

In compliance with the UN resolution, the Arabs declared a ceasefire. But Israel continued operations, and on June 9, 1967, started a new offensive against Syria. The USSR and other socialist countries broke off diplomatic relations with Israel. Thus, international support by the USSR and other socialist countries prevented the Israeli aggressors from achieving their main objective of crushing the Arab liberation movement and toppling progressive Arab regimes.

Soviet naval presence in the Mediterranian was a stabilising factor, too. But in the summer and autumn of 1967 the situation remained rather tense. Israel refused to withdraw its forces and repeatedly violated the ceasefire agreement. In July, Israeli troops tried to capture Port Fuad in Egypt, and bombed some other towns. However, the aggressor no longer dared to start new large-scale operations.

On November 22, 1967, the UN Security Council adopted a resolution demanding Israeli withdrawal from all occupied Arab territories and calling for the territorial integrity and political independence of every state in the area. However, supported by Western imperialist circles, the Israeli government did not comply with the resolution and failed to withdraw its troops. The Israeli aggressors violated navigation on the Suez Canal, and their armed provocations constantly threatened the lives of millions of people in the Middle East. At the same time, militarist NATO circles stepped up their demonstration of force in the East Mediterranean.

The sailing of Soviet warships in the Mediterranean caused sharp reaction from NATO military circles which in different ways, including open provocations, sought to "oust" the Soviet fleet from the area. NATO planes from aircraft carriers and air bases systematically flew over Soviet vessels at low altitudes and dived on them in imitation attacks, NATO warships dangerously manoeuvred in front of them, thus violating commonly accepted international regulations for preventing collision at sea.

Meanwhile, the West started a noisy propaganda campaign to foment fear and hostility. The London *Evening News* alleged that the rapid build-up of the Soviet Mediterranean Fleet had become a threat, and NATO's Admiral Horacio Rivero jr. declared that Soviet presence in the area had allegedly created a new menace. The West German *Christ und Welt* magazine characterised the situation in a similar way, and its 1968 publications claimed that the permanent Soviet naval presence in the Mediterranean was leading to an unprecedented worsening of the strategic positions of Western Europe.

Western propaganda intentionally distorted the aims of Soviet naval presence in the Mediterranean, depicting Soviet foreign policy as a continuation of the imperialist tsarist policies and as Russia's "age-long" aspiration to consolidate her positions in the area. The adherents of the policy from positions of strength posed as peace-makers and claimed that the undivided sway of the United States in the Mediterranean had allegedly created a "balance of forces" which Soviet warships alone had violated. The problem of a "Soviet threat" was also discussed at the November 1968 Brussels Session of the NATO Council. In autumn 1968, the noisy anti-Soviet campaign was followed up by large-scale naval exercises involving over 50 American, British, Italian, Greek, and French warships. In the same year, the NATO leadership formed a special Mediterranean naval air force (Marairmed) for controlling movements of Soviet warships and merchant vessels.

The actual reason for this campaign and increased NATO activity was not at all in the alleged Soviet threat to the commercial navigation and independence of Mediterranean nations, a threat invented by NATO propaganda centres. Soviet ships had never threatened anyone; nor had they interfered in the internal affairs of other countries. Soviet

naval presence in the area is an impediment only to aggressive imperialist policies and to the NATO warships that aim their guns at socialist countries.

In 1969, the American *Foreign Affairs* magazine stated: "With a Soviet fleet in the Mediterranean, a Western intervention such as that of 1958, when American marines landed in Lebanon and British troops in Jordan, is no longer possible." [1]

Soviet warships have come to the Mediterranean in the name of peace, in order to ensure the security of the USSR and other socialist countries. This was in line with the principles proclaimed by the UN Charter and the 1958 Geneva Convention on the High Seas.

It is common knowledge that the Mediterranean is an open sea which hundreds of warships and merchant vessels of different nationality ply every day. Article 2 of the above-mentioned Geneva Convention says that the high seas are open for all nations, and "no State may validly purport to subject any part of them to its sovereignty".[2] Attempts by some Western politicians to prove that Soviet naval presence in the Mediterranean is illegitimate are untenable.

In a statement published on November 24, 1968 in connection with all the racket in the Western press, TASS emphasised that "being a Black Sea and, consequently, a Mediterranean power, the USSR is exercising its indisputable right of presence in the area", and that Soviet warships are stationed there solely to promote stability and peace, something understood quite well by all those who favour international security.

The Arab press, and also progressive and realistically thinking people in the West, assessed Soviet steps as no more than legitimate restoration of balance of power. The Lebanese *Al-Shaab* wrote, for instance, that "the Arab peoples welcome the presence in the Mediterranean of friendly Soviet warships. The Soviet fleet is a reminder to the United States that the times had passed when Americans could do whatever they liked in the Mediterranean".

The Soviet Union's realistic policy in the Mediterranean and its efforts to bring the situation in that region to normal

[1] *Foreign Affairs,* July 1969, No. 4, p. 644.

[2] *United Nations. Status of Multilateral Conventions,* Transmittal sheet, No. 22, 30 June 1958, p. St/leg/ 3.

force a more sober approach on NATO leaders. In this connection, *NATO's Fifteen Nations* published in Brussels wrote: "The Mediterranean is her [Russia's] warm-water route to the markets of the world; it is also, by modern military standards, remarkably close to home... it is fair to say that the purpose of her military presence there is, in the last analysis, defensive." [1]

Soviet warships sail in the Mediterranean and engage in combat training in difficult conditions. Unlike NATO countries, the USSR has no bases there. This requires high moral, psychological, professional and physical training.

During the already mentioned large-scale 1970 "Ocean" exercises, Soviet warships and submarines from different fleets engaged in combat training in the Mediterranean, and before that some of them made lengthy voyages in the Atlantic. The programme included hunting down and pursuing submarines, gunnery, anti-aircraft defence, and avoiding submarine and torpedo boat attacks.

After the exercises, many of the warships visited foreign seaports, including Algiers, where the men placed a wreath on the grave of the heroes of the Algerian Revolution and met with soldiers of the Algerian National People's Army. Cadets from the local naval college made return visits to the ships. The friendship between Soviet and Arab Navymen can be seen not only in mutual visits. To counter imperialist designs, the Arabs were taking measures for strengthening their armed forces, and in doing this they were assisted by the Soviet Union.

In subsequent years, when training during difficult voyages, the Soviet Mediterranean Squadron again showed its high combat preparedness and ability to solve most complicated tasks in any situation.

For example, in 1980 the crew of the escort ship *Bezukoriznenny* was among the best in combat training. Here are several typical scenes. Night. Lit by searchlights, the men have taken battle stations at the guns, led by the missile and artillery unit commander. They are all working in unison. Red flashes of tracer projectiles rush towards the target. A direct hit—and the sea is again calm.

Battle stations in the morning again. This time it is an anti-submarine search-and-destroy mission. Then, a bit later,

[1] *NATO's Fifteen Nations,* August-September 1969, p. 30.

an engagement with "enemy" surface vessels. The ship's commander orders the crew to spot the targets at maximum range and be ready to hit them with the first strike. That mission is also accomplished: jet bombs thunder away to meet the sub. A direct hit again.

Now the engagement with surface ships. That type of mission is among the most complex of naval engagements. Tense and dynamic, it ends in the *Bezukoriznenny*'s victory. The crew's combat readiness gets excellent marks.

Having learned from a radio broadcast about the patriotic initiative of a Northern Fleet missile-carrying nuclear submarine commanded by Captain 1st Rank G. Nikitin, the crew of the *Bezukoriznenny* warmly welcomed that move.

The crew took on high socialist obligations for the new academic year and called on all seamen of the Black Sea Fleet to earn only excellent marks in remote voyages, keep up their vigilance, improve the efficiency of combat training and strengthen their discipline.

Soviet Navymen in the Mediterranean continue the best traditions of older generations. Their behaviour is highly humane and internationalistic. In case of trouble, they always come to the assistance of foreign sailors or local inhabitants. For instance, this happened in the Tyrrhenian Sea when a Soviet warship under Captain 2nd rank A. G. Beketov came to the save of Sicilian fishermen, and in the Strait of Tunis, when in August 1969 the hydrographic research ship *Pamyat Merkuria* saved a group of Italian sailors from the trawler *Antonio Padre*, which sank after being rammed by an unidentified tanker. Again, when sailing in the open sea, the depot ship *Magomet Gadzhiyev* responded to an SOS signal to hasten to the aid of the flame-enveloped Greek ship *Anjelica*, and another Soviet warship saved the Greek schooner *Dimitrios*.

Soviet Navymen helped the Egyptian people in eliminating the consequences of Israeli aggression. In the summer and autumn of 1974, a special detachment of Soviet warships demined the Gulf of Suez. The men worked for twelve and more hours a day, sometimes risking their lives. During one of the mine-sweeping operations, a mine detonated near a Soviet warship. Water gushed inside the vessel, and some of the mechanisms broke down. But the men did not lose their heads and, after sealing all the punctures and eliminating mechanical faults, continued on their mission.

During intense operations in the tropics, lasting almost

four months, Soviet warships repeatedly swept an area of over 1,250 square miles to demine the Gulf of Suez, an important sector of international sea communications, and reopen it for navigation.

Under the burning skies of the Mediterranean, Soviet Navymen do not feel themselves separated from home. Every day they listen to domestic radiobroadcasts about political events at home and abroad and regularly receive newspapers, magazines and letters. At the same time, lecturers, musical teams and naval song and dance companies regularly perform for them. All this permits the men to feel the working momentum of the Soviet people. The patrons, various organisations and agencies of the USSR Ministry of Land Improvement and Water Management, often visit the warships, and naval delegations go to irrigation construction sites.

Western media have published many biased articles about Soviet Navymen in the Mediterranean. However, the peoples of the region have had time to see for themselves the real aims of Soviet naval presence to realise its vital importance for safeguarding the peace. The Mediterranean nations admire the highly cultured Soviet Navymen, as well as their deep understanding of local cultures, customs and traditions and their readiness to give a helping hand in case of need.

The post-war Soviet naval presence in the Mediterranean and calls at foreign seaports have always played a significant role in developing friendship and mutual understanding among nations and in strengthening world peace.

2. Friendly Visits to Foreign Countries

In the diversified system of Soviet international ties for consolidating friendship and good relations with different nations, friendly contacts between navies, including mutual visits, play a vital role. They help to improve state relations and international understanding, trust and goodwill.

Soviet warships started on this important mission in the very first years of Soviet government. In 1925, soon after the Russian Civil War, the cruiser *Aurora* and the training vessel *Komsomolets* made long voyages around Scandinavia, where they called at Göteborg in Sweden, and Bergen in Norway.

In the post-war years, Soviet warships paid courtesy visits and made business calls at dozens of seaports in socialist,

developing and capitalist countries, and a number of foreign naval vessels paid return visits to Leningrad, Sevastopol, Riga, Vladivostok, Tallinn, Odessa, and other Soviet ports.

Ever since the Soviet Navy emerged in the open seas, calls at foreign ports by Soviet warships have become increasingly frequent. Every year, thousands and thousands of Soviet sailors and officers visit foreign shores to learn about the life, history and culture of other nations. At the same time, these friendly visits make it possible for other peoples to see for themselves the great opportunities and achievements of socialism, the complete national equality, the high level of engineering in the USSR, and the men's culture, goodwill, discipline, and high training levels.

The impressive design and powerful armament of Soviet warships show that they can belong only to a nation with highly developed science and industry and be handled only by men with high professional skills.

From 1934 to 1939, Soviet warships went on eight voyages, during which they paid courtesy visits to 17 seaports in 14 countries; from 1954 to 1959 they made 19 visits to 21 seaports in 11 countries; and from 1970 to 1976, they took part in 98 courtesy visits to 58 seaports in 44 countries, and apart from that they made over 3,500 routine calls at foreign seaports.

However, the opponents of detente look for arguments against any peaceful action. Their desire to put a fly in the ointment is also evident in their view on Soviet naval visits to foreign ports. Here is what *NATO's Fifteen Nations* wrote in September 1973: "The 'Cold War' is now generally considered to be a thing of the past. We should not delude ourselves, however. The Soviets continually, and perfectly legally wage this 'war' under the much more respectable heading of diplomacy; and diplomacy based on visits of impressive warships and friendly sailors as much as on dialogue in a more rarefied diplomatic atmosphere. It is the friendly sailor who oils the wheels of the diplomatic machine, and we in the West would do well to recall our own successes in this field. It is perfectly possible to make friends without subjugating them; indeed, the politico-military aspects of maritime power grow ever more critical as the probability of open conflict diminishes." [1]

[1] *NATO's Fifteen Nations,* August-September 1973, Vol. 18, No. 4, p. 69.

There is hardly any need to enter into polemics with the authors of this statement, which was readily refuted by the Peruvian *La Razón* newspaper when on October 30, 1973 it carried the following assessment of a visit to Callao of the Soviet depot ship *Ivan Kucherenko* with naval cadets on board: "It is clear that today some people still think that the Reds have 'bought' us, and that we must inevitably come to communism with all our bag and baggage. No, gentlemen! We are sufficiently committed to our own standpoint for adopting different views. We like the Russian people, their dances, music and unpretentious comportment and discipline."

When *Ivan Kucherenko* was on courtesy visits in Peru and Ecuador, a stream of people came aboard. They formed a queue stretching almost two kilometers, and visiting hours were prolonged till late night-time to give everybody a chance to come aboard. Many people came with their families, up in their Sunday best, and continued to stream in till the seaport gates closed.

The wreath-laying ceremony in Grau Square, Callao, was very impressive. The wreath of red carnations and roses had the form of an admiralty anchor flying the Soviet naval ensign, skilfully made of flowers of different hues; it was surrounded by a red ribbon with the inscription "From Soviet Navymen to the Heroes of the Struggle for Peru's Independence". The meeting with Jorge del Prado, General Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Peru, was also very exciting. Comrade del Prado described the political situation in Peru and noted that although the Communist Party did not take part in government, it nevertheless supported their policies.

The visiting Soviet sailors especially liked the San-Domingo and San-Francisco cathedrals, and San Marcos University established in 1551. They also enjoyed the Gold of Peru museum with its more than 6,500 unique golden ornaments. In Peru, the men were welcomed cordially everywhere. Even policemen stopped the busy flow of traffic when they saw that Soviet Navymen were about to cross the street.

When calling at foreign seaports, Soviet sailors visit industrial enterprises, educational institutions, museums and other places of interest. They meet with young people and servicemen from local garrisons, and are entertained by local people. Furthermore, they often take part in soccer, basketball

and volleyball tournaments and exchange souvenirs and badges. Entertainments staged by Soviet sailors are always a great success. In 1975 alone, they staged about 300 cinema shows and over 100 amateur concerts and song and dance performances for over 217,000 foreign viewers.

During a visit by the destroyer *Vliyatelny* to Port Male, in the Maldives, Soviet documentaries and feature films were shown every day in the city square. On viewers' requests, *Lenin in 1918* was screened several times.

Amateur performances by Soviet sailors win the hearts even of connoisseurs. When the cruiser *Dzerzhinsky* was on a brief visit in Le Havre, France, its amateur performers gave 13 concerts which were attended by almost 6,000 people. The Honorary Mayor of Le Havre René Cance commented: "For twenty years I have been deputy to the National Assembly and have served two six-year terms as mayor of this city. I have heard and seen many good concerts and outstanding artists in this hall, but none of them had so deeply touched the hearts of Frenchmen as your marvellous sailors." According to the local press, the concert in the Havre Municipal Theatre which seats 840 viewers was attended by 1,500 people.

Soviet Navymen win the sympathies of friendly nations by their goodwill, and also by their responsiveness and modesty.

In 1974, the cruiser *Sverdlov* and destroyer *Nastoichivy* paid a courtesy visit to Cherbourg, France. The local *La Presse de La Manche* newspaper wrote on the day following their arrival: "On that wonderful sunny morning, the French seaport of Cherbourg seemed to have put on all its finest regalia to greet the Soviet sailors. The festive atmosphere was comparable only with that which prevailed when the townspeople feted the famous Normandy-Neman air squadron. The thunder of a salute of the nations seemed to have roused the city. Masses of people streamed into the port..." The paper also noted that Russian Navymen have in fact been friends of the people of Cherbourg for a whole century. The occasion of their first visit was in July 1880, when sailors from the frigate *Svetlana* endeared themselves to the local people by helping to extinguish a fire in a baker's on Foss Street, and the second when in 1900 seamen from the *Silach* and the destroyers *Nargen* and *Gogland* once again performed well on a similar occasion and were first to quickly and resolutely start fighting a fire at a saw-mill.

Cherbourg is not a particularly large city, but many sightseeing tours were organised and the men saw the most interesting monuments and buildings, the Liberation Museum, the monuments to those who fell in battle in the First and Second World wars, and the Municipal Theatre. They visited Apia, Carteret, Bayeux, and the resort town of Saint Michel, and were cordially welcomed everywhere.

At first many Frenchmen showed reserve. Later it became clear that that was because of the boisterous behaviour of the seamen from a NATO squadron which had visited Cherbourg just before the Soviet ships arrived. Sailors from Dutch and Canadian destroyers and from West German, British, American and Canadian coast guards had left very dubious recollections of their visit. But after meeting with the considerate and goodwilled Soviet Navymen, the French attitude changed completely, as people became fully aware of their sincerity.

In 1977, a detachment of the Soviet Northern Fleet visited Cherbourg, and again the people gave them a cordial welcome. The diverse programme was highlighted by a wreath-laying ceremony at the monument to those who fell in battle during World War II. Louis Darinot, Mayor of Cherbourg and M. P., remarked on how the ceremony had turned into an unusually massive manifestation and said that they were pleasantly surprised that so many people came at midday, something never seen before even on big holidays. Mayor Darinot concluded his statement with the words: "We are sincerely looking forward to Leonid Brezhnev's forthcoming visit. We know all about the peaceful policy of the Soviet Union, and we deeply respect the USSR for its great contribution to the victory over nazi Germany. Our objectives in foreign policy largely coincide with yours, and we are convinced that Mr. Brezhnev's visit will be fruitful."

La Presse de La Manche published an article about the visit to Cherbourg of the Soviet training vessel *Smolny* and the destroyer *Zhguchy*. The article, for one thing, noted that "unlike sailors from other countries, Soviet Navymen are always disciplined, polite and respectful. During get-togethers and receptions, they decline drinks and, when in town, feel themselves at ease and readily meet local people to make a very favourable impression. The townsfolk enjoyed all their smiles and souvenirs."

Professor S. Revèrche gave Admiral of the Fleet G. Ye-

gorov a book with the following inscription: "To Admiral Yegorov. The Russian nation has made a significant step forward which mankind deeply appreciates. Every time your warships call at different ports you show your power, your culture, your discipline and your fine intellect. Compared with other declining nations, yours is a specimen of human perfection. Long live eternal Russia!"

Under detente, naval exchanges by Soviet warships and American, British and Canadian units became more frequent and promoted friendly relations.

When the destroyers *Sposobny* and *Gnevny* visited Vancouver, Canada, the Soviet orchestra, singers and dancers had tremendous success. Wherever they performed, whether in the Trade Centre or at the site of the National Exhibition, the local people always showed enormous delight. Songs like *Kalinka* and *Katyusha* and sailors' dances were accompanied by continuous applause.

On May 13, 1975, in connection with an official visit to Boston by the Soviet destroyers *Boiky* and *Zhguchy, The New York Times* carried the following commentary: "The visit of the two Soviet guided-missile destroyers was part of ceremonies marking the 30th anniversary of the allied victory and a tangible symbol of efforts at detente." [1] The reception in Boston was indicative of new times and trends. As soon as the ships arrived, several dozen US newsmen dashed into the wardroom of the *Boiky* where Rear-Admiral A.M. Kalinin, the Commanding Officer, was holding his first press conference, to which the local media responded with immediate and goodwilled commentaries. John W. Chancellor, well-known TV commentator, called the naval exchanges a "handshake across the ocean".

When greeting the Soviet sailors, Boston Mayor Kevin White declared that they had done the city a great honour in choosing it for their first visit in 30 years to the United States. The presence of two Soviet naval vessels in one of the oldest American seaports, he said, is a symbol of good current relations. He also expressed his warm approval of continued friendly relations with the USSR.

Boston newspapers also responded with goodwilled articles and warm wishes of welcome. They emphasised that given all the vicissitudes in post-war Soviet-US relations, this peaceful

[1] *The New York Times*, May 13, 1975.

naval exchange was precisely one of the good things on which no efforts should be spared.

All Bostonians warmly welcomed the Soviet Navymen, thousands of people came aboard and left hundreds of written comments.

Rear-Admiral J. A. Langill, Commanding Officer of the US naval detachment which paid a return visit to Leningrad, made the following statement to Soviet correspondents: "Let us now fight together against mutual misunderstanding, distrust and suspicion. If we do that now as successfully as we fought together 30 years ago, misunderstanding will also be defeated. This must be done for the future, for our children.... Our reciprocal visits to Leningrad and Boston, in my view, certainly contribute to detente and development of good relations." [1]

Soviet sailors and the people of Oslo will long remember the visit of the destroyers *Gremyashchy* and *Zhguchy*. Sightseeing started with Town Hall Square and the Town Hall building decorated by leading Norwegian painters. The Soviet sailors also visited the Museum of Viking Ships, the National and Naval Museums, the museum exhibiting the celebrated raft *Kon Tiki* and the polar vessel *Fram*, the National Art Gallery and Frognerpark which boasts one of the world's biggest sculptural compositions by Adolf Gustav Vigeland. There are always fresh flowers at the monument to Soviet soldiers, and the pedestal bears the inscription "Norway Is Thankful To You". Officials and townsfolk came together with a delegation of Soviet sailors to lay flowers there.

The visit on October 6-9, 1978 to Messina, Italy, by the big Black Sea anti-submarine ship *Reshitelny* under Rear-Admiral N.I. Ryabinsky was an outstanding event among the naval exchanges of that year.

It was highlighted by a ceremony, during which a commemorative plaque was unveiled on the front of the municipality building: "In memory of the noble aid swiftly rendered to the people of Messina during the earthquake of December 28, 1908 by the crews of the Russian naval vessels *Bogatyr, Tsesarevich, Admiral Makarov* and *Slava*, the municipality, wishing to immortalise this act of solidarity and boundless

[1] *USA: Economy, Policy and Ideology*, No. 8, 1975, p. 50 (in Russian).

heroism, puts up this plaque on the occasion of the deeply appreciated visit by Soviet representatives, in witness of eternal gratitude and the fraternal friendship between Messina and the Russian people. October 7, 1978." The crowd at the ceremony consisted of the crew of the *Reshitelny,* Italian naval officers, local garrison troops, thousands of inhabitants, civil and military authorities, members of parliament, federations of various political parties. The ceremony was attended by the archbishop; present also was a woman who had been saved in 1908 by Russian sailors (mother of the correspondent of ANSA News Agency in Messina). She gave a very interesting and emotional interview for Italian television. Later, the Assistant Mayor of Messina stressed that the old woman had expressed the sentiments of all the townsfolk.

No matter where Soviet naval units visited – the misty shores of the Baltic or the sweltering hot coasts of Africa or South America – they were always respectfully and cordially welcomed as full-fledged representatives of the USSR, a great multinational socialist power.

The following comment was made in the visitors' book on the cruiser *Dzerzhinsky* when a group of Soviet Black Sea warships visited Tunisia in 1977: "We welcome Soviet naval visits to La Goulette, and we hope that this one will again contribute to strengthening friendly relations between our countries and peoples. Residents of La Goulette."

In Guinea, Soviet sailors from the destroyers *Boiky* and *Neulovimy* toured the country with immense interest and visited industrial enterprises and educational institutions in Conakry. The language barrier was very often overcome simply through mutual friendship and cordiality.

The people of Cuba and the sailors of the Soviet missile cruiser *Grozny* will long remember the days when the ship, escorted by two destroyers and two submarines, arrived in Havana on an official visit.

The Navymen visited the Museum of José Marti, leader of the Cuban revolutionary and liberation movement, the Cuban Academy of Sciences, the country cottage of Ernest Hemingway, sugar refineries and tobacco factories. The cruiser was visited by Fidel Castro, Osvaldo Dorticós, Raul Castro, Carlos Rafael Rodriguez, Blas Roca and other Cuban party and government leaders. During the three-hour cruise that followed, the guests got a first-hand

view of the ship's armament, equipment and fighting potential.

In 1975, on the eve of the 30th anniversary of V-day, a detachment of Black Sea Fleet river units under Captain 1st rank A. Bardashuk sailed along the Danube to make friendly calls at Braila (Romania), Ruse (Bulgaria), Novi Sad (Yugoslavia), Mohacs and Budapest (Hungary), Bratislava and Komarno (Czechoslovakia), and Vienna (Austria), and tens of thousands of people came to see the Soviet ships.

Here are just two comments left in visitors' books in Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria. "Soviet sailors are smart, polite, and cultured young men, and that is precisely what we had expected of them. The Holiček s. Bratislava", and "Welcome, brothers! Come again! Emilia Tsvetanova, Ruse." The following warm comments were made in visitors' books on the cruiser *Zhdanov* and the Guards destroyer *Krasny Krym* during their visit to Toulon, France: "Friendly greetings to the great Russian people", "Glory to those who helped us liberate ourselves from fascism", and "Nations are friendly when they know each other well. We should meet more often."

The Soviet warships' equipment and immaculate order always make a big impression both on foreign sailors and the inhabitants of friendly countries. During their stay in seaports of Europe, Asia, Africa and Latin America, people coming aboard usually leave warm and emotional comments in visitors' books.

Now, why is it that Soviet sailors win the sympathies of ordinary people in other countries? Evidently primarily because they represent the world's first state of working people who freed themselves from oppression and exploitation. The Soviet people are bearers of the ideals of peace, friendship and internationalism, understandable to all the world's honest, hard-working people.

The desire to open their hearts and give a helping and friendly hand to those in need is characteristic of the Soviet sailor. At the risk of his life, in the most terrible storm, he comes to the assistance of all those beset by calamity in the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and in the Mediterranean and other seas. And when visiting in Cuba, the Soviet sailor takes a machete to help his Cuban friends cut sugar cane.

When in 1971 Bangladesh proclaimed independence, Chit-

tagong, its main seaport, was completely paralysed after the recent hostilities. The piers were demolished, the fairways were full of sunken ships, and the approaches to the harbour were all mined. The country was in great need of help, and help came from an expedition of Soviet salvage boats and minesweepers which subsequently swept over one thousand square miles of mined area. Soviet sailors surfaced 26 big ships, barges and launches with total carrying capacity of more than 100,000 tons. It took them two years to do the job, though foreign experts had claimed that it would take them several years. Sometimes Soviet sailors worked for twenty-four hours, and divers had to endure particularly difficult conditions. Chittagong stands on the river Karnaphuli, which at that place flows at almost ten kilometers an hour. In addition, the water there is turbid with temperatures running up to 30°C. And the divers spent more than 40,000 hours underwater.

The hydrographic team had an equally hard time. Their posts for coordinating sweeping operations were in inaccessible areas, to which only helicopters could deliver equipment, food, fuel, and lubricants. But despite all this, the work was completed successfully.

The Bangladesh *People's View* wrote in this connection that the achievement of the Soviet salvage expedition in returning to normal life the devastated port of Chittagong, the sea gates of Bangladesh, can be remembered only with the deepest gratitude. Today, Chittagong's freight turnover exceeds its pre-war level.

In February 1975, elsewhere in the Indian Ocean, the hurricane "Gervaise" battered Mauritius. It caused severe damage to the country's economy and brought serious casualties, and Soviet Navymen hastened to aid the victims. For fortnight, Soviet ships visiting in Port Louis sent several hundred men daily to restore power lines, telephone communications, roads, and water conduits; the sailors also connected apartment houses to power lines and repaired roofs and ceilings in residential buildings and hospitals.

At the time, the local newspaper *Le Cernéen* wrote: "Numerous teams of Russian sailors are repairing telephone lines. They do this very quickly.... You won't see any of them resting at noon. No cards, no coca-colas, no lemonades, no chattering with idlers: a good example our workers should follow."

In Mauritius, people in different settlements enthusiastically welcomed Soviet Navymen. Everyone wanted to shake hands with them and say something nice. Enrique Dominguez, a telephone exchange worker, said: "Soviet sailors put on the light in my home, in the homes of my neighbours, in all the houses here. We never thought people living so far from Mauritius would be so close in moment of need. Thank you very much, Soviet friends! You are always our desired and dear guests."

The director of the local hospital sent the following telegram to the commanding officer: "I highly value the assistance of Soviet sailors to the civil hospital. They really did a great job in restoring the administrative building, laboratories, blood storage rooms, and physicians' dining-room. Soviet sailors are very industrious and disciplined. They worked shoulder to shoulder with Mauritian workers to restore the hospital. They not only helped us in trouble, but promoted genuinely human relationships."

In his message of thanks to Leonid Brezhnev, Prime Minister Seewoosagur Ramgoolam said: "As a result of the fraternal sentiments between our two countries, Your Excellency's message was instantly followed up by practical assistance.... I cannot find words to express to Your Excellency on my own behalf and on behalf of my people our admiration, high appreciation, and gratitude for the timely aid."

Such facts as this convincingly show Soviet sailors to be worthy representatives of a socialist state, courageous and noble men, and real internationalists. All these outstanding qualities have been fostered by the society in which they live, by the socialist way of life.

3. Soviet Research in the World Ocean

From ancient times the ocean has attracted mankind with its countless treasures and untamable nature. The development of navigation, fisheries, and other economic activities was accompanied by increasingly large-scale exploration, which became particularly extensive in the last several decades. Soviet scientific institutions do research under international projects, as well as under nationally coordinated plans.

The Soviet Navy also widely contributes to marine research. The Soviet Naval Hydrographic Service (SNHS) takes part in developing equipment and techniques for

oceanographic research, hydrography and marine cartography, and in studying, processing and summarising results obtained by specialised expeditions and scientific agencies. Oceanographic and hydrographic vessels like *Akademik Krylov, Semyon Dezhnev, Moldavia* and others are equipped with modern apparatus, e. g., depth-sounding instruments, receivers for determining bearings by radionavigational systems, precision gyrocompasses, temperature probes, etc. Soviet navigation charts are in great demand in many countries because they are highly accurate. At present, *An Atlas of the Oceans,* a huge scientific project involving contemporary knowledge on ocean and atmosphere environment, is being prepared under the editorship of Admiral S. G. Gorshkov, Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Navy.

The Central Naval Cartographic Board in Leningrad sends weekly reports to navigators on all the changes in sailing conditions. To ensure accuracy it constantly exchanges information with over thirty countries.

Soviet naval hydrographic and research vessels take active part in many international projects, including those in the West Pacific, and the Mediterranean and Caribbean seas.

In the very first years of Soviet government the Soviet state took measures to organise systematic research of the seas and oceans, and several research institutes and agencies were established for that purpose. From the very outset they directed their efforts at solving vital practical problems. They actively studied the seas that wash the shores of the USSR, first the Baltic, White and Barents seas, and then the others.

Particular attention was given to exploring the Arctic and opening a regular line along the Northern Sea Route, the principal Soviet communication line in the area.

The Northern Sea Route lies along the northern coasts of the USSR and traverses the Barents, Kara, Laptev, East Siberian, Chukchi and Bering seas to connect Soviet seaports in Europe and the Far East and the estuaries of navigable Siberian rivers into a single national transport system. It is nearly half the distance of the other sea routes from Europe to the Far East, and passes via Soviet territorial waters. The distance from Leningrad to Vladivostok via the Northern Sea Route is 14,280 km; via the Suez Canal 23,200 km; and around the Cape of Good Hope 29,400 km.

However, the long and severe arctic winters and short and cold summers make the polar seas extremely ice-bound, this

being the main obstacle for vessels over large sectors of the route. The most difficult sailing conditions are in areas with great accumulations of thick ice, which stays around even in the warmest time of the year. The convoys can sail through only with the aid of ice-breakers.

The Northern Sea Route became an economic necessity, and Soviet vessels sailed in the Arctic and performed comprehensive research in order to explore this communication line. Radio stations and geophysical observatories were built on the coastline and islands of the Arctic Ocean and navigational signs and beacons were put up. Numerous sea and air expeditions were organised, surveyors mapped Arctic islands and coasts, and sea charts and sailing directions were recompiled.

In 1921, first expeditions went to explore the Kara Sea, and in 1923 the area near the Kolyma estuary, and all these paved the way for making the entire Northern Sea Route navigable. In 1932, the ice-breaker *Sibiryakov* sailed for the first time from Archangel to Bering Strait without wintering in the Arctic. Expeditions by the *Chelyuskin* in 1933 and *Litke* in 1934 showed that the route was ready for freighter voyages, which were started in 1935.

The Central Board of the Northern Sea Route was established in 1932 to supervise extensive exploration and navigation in the Arctic. The Board's task was to break the trail from the White Sea to the Bering Strait, to fully equip the route, maintain it in good order, and ensure the safety of navigation. The exploration of the Northern Sea Route is organically connected with extensive Soviet investigations in the Arctic, and is an outstanding result of these studies.

In order to start navigation along the route, Soviet explorers had to perform all-round research in the Arctic, including the North Pole region. To that end, they went on hydrographic expeditions to study the conditions along the route and to compile navigation charts and sailing directions. In 1935, they went on expedition on the *Sadko*; in 1937, the first drifting station, the "North Pole", was set up, and from 1937 to 1940 valuable information was obtained during the drift of the ice-breaker *Georgy Sedov*. Ever since 1954 two drifting stations have been on permanent operation in the Arctic, conducting a whole series of investigations having major significance for navigation along the Northern Sea Route. Furthermore, from 1948, unmanned automatic

stations have been investigating Arctic; as many as 25-30 such stations are set up there annually for transmitting information to coastal stations on wind direction and velocity, air temperature, atmospheric pressure, and ice drifts.

The voyages in August 1977 of the nuclear ice-breaker *Arktika* to the North Pole, and in June 1978 of the nuclear ice-breaker *Sibir*, were outstanding events in Soviet polar research. Soviet investigators made a number of discoveries which helped to discard some wrong ideas. For instance, they found that the floor of the Central Polar Basin was not a continuous abyssal depression, but a depression with mountains, some rising to as high as three kilometers. The main ridge extends from Novosibirskiye Islands via the North Pole to Greenland and is called Lomonosov Ridge in honour of the great Russian scientist who did so much to develop national polar research and oceanography. The Ridge separates the Polar Basin into two depressions. Soviet scientists have also clarified the pathways of cyclones via the Arctic and their effects on ice drifts and determined the nature of water masses and the role of the Atlantic and Pacific in their origination. Everywhere under the ice they found various small algae, small crayfish and fish, and, on the ice surface, polar bears, seals and sea birds.

Soviet investigations in the central Arctic produced major geographic discoveries of the 20th century. They are of paramount importance for prognosticating ice sheets along the Northern Sea Route and making weather forecasts over vast areas of the USSR.

Before 1947 Soviet oceanographic research was chiefly restricted to the Arctic. But in 1947 regular investigations were started also in the Antarctic, when a group of scientists from the Soviet National Research Institute for Marine Fisheries and Oceanography began technological studies and extensive nature observations on board the whaling flotilla *Slava.*

The first Soviet observatories were established in the Antarctic during the 1957-1959 international projects for geophysical cooperation. At present 12 countries are doing joint research there, and all the work is coordinated by the International Committee for Antarctic Investigations (ICAI).

Soviet oceanographic studies in temperate zones and low latitudes, episodic for quite a long time, became extensive and systematic only in 1949, after the commissioning of the specialised research ship *Vityaz*. She could accommodate 60

research workers of different specialities, and represented a true floating laboratory, from which Soviet scientists penetrated deep into the Pacific to make major discoveries, such as the Mariana Depression, the deepest place in the world (11,034 m). In 1959-1962, they investigated the nothern sector of the Indian Ocean. The results of all these extensive studies enriched world science with numerous conclusions.[1]

After *Vityaz*, other research ships, *M. Lomonosov, Sergey Vavilov, Pyotr Lebedev, Voyeikov, Shokalsky,* and also big ships of the *Akademik Kurchatov* class, began plying the ocean. At present, scores of Soviet research vessels have collected abundant material making it possible to elucidate a number of processes in the ocean and discover hitherto unknown phenomena.

In 1957-1958, the second and third Soviet expeditions went to the Antarctic under the International Geophysical Year and arrived at the conclusion that the East Antarctic is a continent, not an archipelago. They performed large-scale comprehensive research of the Earth's magnetic field and meteorological and hydrological observations. Ever since then, they have been continuously studying the polar areas of the Antarctic. Soviet research vessels regularly sail there to land winterers and bring equipment and supplies.

In 1959, an expedition of the Marine Hydrographical Institute on the *M. Lomonosov* discovered an equatorial stream in the Atlantic at depths of 100-500 m, and in 1960 an expedition of the Institute of Oceanology on the *Vityaz* detected a similar current in the Indian Ocean. The two streams were named the Lomonosov and Tareyev streams. Another expedition on the *Akademik Kurchatov* discovered the Antilles-Guyana counter-current off the shores of America.

In 1970, as a result of an experiment commonly called Polygon-70, Soviet oceanologists made an outstanding discovery, which overturned existing conceptions of medium-scale circulation of ocean waters. They detected gigantic eddies with horizontal dimensions of several hundred kilometers in the tropical zone of the Atlantic. These eddies apparently have a great effect on water exchange, temperatures and biological structure, and on atmosphere-ocean interaction.

In order to study atmospheric processes and large-scale

[1] Y. A. Grishin, *Istoriya moreplavaniya*, (A History of Navigation), Moscow, 1972, p. 14 (in Russian).

atmosphere-ocean interactions, two big experiments, TROPEX-72, a national project, and TROPEX-74, an international project, were carried out. Twenty-nine ships from 10 countries, including 13 Soviet vessels, took part in TROPEX-74. Both projects made possible the calculation of the heat and water mass transfer by equatorial streams, the ocean's heat balance, and the variability of oceanographic parameters in the tropics.

Soviet scientists also studied large-scale energy exchanges between the ocean and atmosphere in high latitudes and determined the role of polar regions in the overall ocean-atmosphere energy balance. They took part in POLEX-North-76, a big international experiment which made it possible to determine variations in the ocean and atmosphere heat content, as well as the convection of heat and moisture by air masses, and the radiation balance.

Joint Soviet-American research under the POLEX-South project between Australia and Drake Passage in the Antarctic substantially added to existing ideas on the structure and dynamics of the Antarctic Circulating Stream and led to the discovery of a near-bottom counter-current in Drake Passage. In recent years, comprehensive Soviet studies of the ocean have become increasingly widespread, and many of the projects are international, such as PIGAP for investigating global atmospheric processes and atmosphere-ocean interaction; Polymode for studying the ocean's synoptic variability; and Goides for deep drilling of the ocean floor.

Scientists from numerous specialised and academic research institutes take part in ocean studies. In recent years, the scientific and technological potential of SNHS has considerably increased, and this permits it to participate in the projects of the International Council for Marine Studies. SNHS has extensive international ties and exchanges information with foreign colleagues; this contributes to better international cooperation in hydrography and oceanography.

Each successive year Soviet achievements in ocean studies reveal new phenomena of major significance for national economy. They serve the interests of the Soviet people and the cause of world peace and progress.

In furthering its international ties in oceanological research and exchange, the USSR bases itself on the principle that all seas and oceans should be increasingly utilised for promoting peaceful relations and cooperation.

CONCLUSION

The Constitution of the USSR states that the duty of the Soviet Armed Forces is to reliably defend the socialist Homeland and maintain constant combat readiness for the instant repulsion of any aggressor. The Soviet Navy makes a vital contribution to the fulfilment of this task. It defends the state interests of the USSR on the seas and oceans and is always ready to repulse naval aggression.

The Soviet Navy has a glorious past. The successor to the best traditions of the Russian Navy, it was created and developed as an integral part of the Armed Forces. Its long and glorious path is marked by many legendary exploits, heroic deeds, and splendid victories.

On sea and on land, in severe Arctic waters and in the Baltic, off the shores of the intensely hot Caucasus and over the expanses of the Pacific, the Soviet Navyman has always been a symbol of true courage, iron staunchness, and inflexible will for victory. Fostered by the Communist Party and enriched by fighting revolutionary traditions, the Navy had together with the Army defended the freedom and independence of the USSR on the battlefields of the Civil and Great Patriotic wars.

The peace after World War II was unstable. Militarist circles and forces of international reaction began to prepare for war against the USSR and other socialist countries. According to American sources, since 1945 the United States has threatened the Soviet Union with nuclear weapons on 33 occasions, and US Defence Secretary Harold Brown confirmed that in recent years NATO's military and political leadership had more than once reverted to the idea of using nuclear arms against socialist countries.

All these criminal schemes brought the world to the brink of war more than once. Naturally, the USSR could not stay indifferent to its own security and, in pursuing a policy of

consolidating peace and detente, the Communist Party and Soviet government at the same time show constant concern for strengthening the nation's defence potential and streamlining its Armed Forces.

The enormous post-war advances in socialist economy, science and engineering have made it possible to equip all the armed services with the most up-to-date weapons and equipment.

The Soviet Navy also entered a new stage of development. Within less than two decades, it was transformed into a new, nuclear missile ocean-going fleet.

The creation of a powerful modern Soviet Navy can rightfully be regarded as an outstanding achievement of the Soviet people. Enormous efforts and energies, as well as the dedicated research and creative inspiration of large numbers of scientists, designers, engineers, and workers, went into the commissioning of new warships and development of new propulsion plants, weapons, communications and controls.

The development of the modern Soviet Navy was made possible by the great economic, scientific and technological potential of the USSR, and by the advanced scientific techniques applied in the construction of the Navy.

The Soviet Armed Forces had thus acquired in a qualitatively new fleet a powerful defensive force for deterring aggression and offsetting expansionist imperialist aspirations on the seas and oceans.

The Soviet Navy of today has vast operational, material and technical capabilities permitting it to successfully fulfil important tasks in any region of the ocean. Day and night, the Navy keeps vigil in the Arctic, Atlantic and Pacific, safeguarding the peaceful labour of the Soviet people. During distant voyages Soviet sailors persistently train under adverse weather conditions to master new equipment, improve their fighting skills, and prepare themselves for operations in combat situation.

All the powerful armaments are in the reliable hands of Soviet Navymen, the worthy successors to the heroic traditions of their forefathers. The naval personnel of the '70s are real masters in their field. They vigilantly safeguard peace and all revolutionary gains in single formation with the Soviet Army and the armies of fraternal socialist countries.

The increased fighting potential of modern Soviet naval weapons, as well as the men's high moral, political and fighting qualities have successfully stood up to the arduous tests of distant voyages, of ballistic and torpedo firing, gunnery, practice mine-laying operations, and big exercises.

All attempts by Western propaganda to portray the Soviet naval presence in the World Ocean as an expansionist drive are absolutely groundless. The Soviet Armed Forces have never been used for aggressive purposes. All the wars the USSR has waged have always been directed solely against those who encroached upon its integrity and the freedom and socialist gains of the Soviet people.

The Soviet Union is opposed to all policies of expansion and diktat, and its naval presence in the seas and oceans does not pursue any aggressive aims. The Soviet Navy does not interfere in international navigation or infringe on anybody's interests; neither is it an instrument for exerting pressure on maritime nations. The sole purpose of Soviet naval presence in remote areas, including the Mediterranean, is to ensure the security of the USSR and other socialist countries and to promote world peace. Presenting no threat to any country, the Soviet Navy is always ready to repulse any aggressor who dares to encroach on the security of the USSR.

In defending peace, the USSR constantly urges that international disputes be settled by peaceful means, and campaigns for non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries. The Communist Party and Soviet government seek to turn the world's seas and oceans into zones of peace and friendly cooperation and to reach a definitive settlement of the disputes surrounding foreign naval presence in different areas of the world. In this connection, Leonid Brezhnev, General Secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU, declared: "We have never regarded it as an ideal situation for navies of great powers to remain for long periods far from home waters. We are ready to settle this problem, too, but to settle it on equal footing. The Soviet Union is ready, on the basis of such principles, to discuss any proposals." [1]

In cooperation with other arms and services, Soviet Navymen reliably ensure the security of the USSR. They know that the calm and peaceful labour of Soviet people, successful defence of the gains of socialism, and consolidation of world peace are essentially dependent on their vigilant service.

[1] L. I. Brezhnev, *Our Course: Peace and Socialism*, Collection of Speeches (March 1971–December 1972), Moscow, 1975, p. 163.

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Name index

A

Alfred the Great–12
Alexandrovsky, I. F.–25
Alexeyev, V. N.–75
Andreyev, V. A.–79
Antonov, N. V.–79

B

Bardashuk, A.–137
Beketov, A. G.–128
Bellinsgausen, F. F.–26
Bozhok, V.–110
Brezhnev, L. I.–70, 71, 93, 94, 98, 107, 133, 139, 148
Brown, Harold–145
Burke, Arleigh–10
Butakov, G. I.–25

C

Cance, René–132
Castro Ruz, Fidel–136
Castro Ruz, Raúl–136
Chuikov, V. I.–66
Churchill, Winston–85

D

Darinot, Louis–133
Dezhnev, S. I.–26
Dönitz, Karl–72, 73
Domínguez, Enrique–139
Dorodnykh, V.–110
Dorticós Torrado, Osvaldo–136
Dybenko, P. E.–39

E

Ehrenskjold, Nic–14

F

Filchenkov, N. D.–58

G

Geiden, L. P.–19
Golovko, A. G.–59
Golovnin, V. M.–26
Gorshkov, S. G.–69, 76, 84, 119, 140
Grechko, A. A.–69
Grishchenko, P. D.–65
Grudnev, Yu.–117

H

Hemingway, Ernest–136
Herrick, Robert W.–9, 10
Hitler, Adolf–6, 55, 61
Holiček–137

J

Jane, Frederick T.–12

K

Kabanov, S. I.–64
Kalinin, A. M.–134
Kerensky, A. F.–37
Kidd, I. C.–9
Kislyakov, V. P.–60
Kolchak, A. V.–45
Kolenko, A. N.–72
Kornilov, L. G.–34
Kornilov V. A.–22
Kotsebu, O. Y.–26
Kovalchuk, A. S.–106
Krasnov, P. N.–37
Krąsnoselsky, I. M.–58
Krusenstern, I. F.–27
Kunikov, T. L.–70
Kuznetsov, N. G.–83

L

Langill, J. A.–135
Lazarev, M. P.–25, 26
Lenin, V. I.–5, 30, 34, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40, 41, 43, 46, 87, 113
Lisyansky, Y. F.–26
Litke, F. P.–26

M

Makarov, S. O.–25, 26, 27
Marinesko, A. I.–73
Marti, José–136
Marx, Karl–13
Matveyev, V. I.–74
Mehemet Ali–19
Miklukho-Maklai, N. N.–27
Moiseyev, A. Y.–61
Molofeyev, K. N.–61
Mokhov, N.–64

N

Nakhimov, P. S.–21, 22, 25
Napoleon I.–18
Nevelskoy, G. I.–26, 27
Nikashidze, O.–117
Nicholas I.–29

O

Odintsov, D. S.–58
Oktyabrsky, F. S.–55, 57
Olshansky, K. F.–73
Osman Paśha–22

P

Papanin, I. D.–51
Paramoshkin, P. I.–74
Parshin, Yu. K.–58
Peter the Great–13, 25
Petrov, I. Y.–57
Popov, A. S.–25
Prado, Jorge del–131
Preobrazhensky, E. N.–63
Pushkarev, P. G.–58

R

Ramenskikh, V.–113
Revèrche, S.–133
Rivero, Horacio–125
Roca, Blas–136
Rodríguez, Carlos Rafael–136
Rudnev, V. F.–24
Rusanov, V. A.–28
Russell, Bertrand–91
Ryabinsky, N. I.–135

S

Schmidt, P. P.–31, 32
Sedov, G. Ya.–28
Seewoosagur, Ramgoolam–1
Senyavin, D. N.–18, 19, 25
Shchedrin, G. I.–75
Shelikhov, G. I.–26
Smirnov, N. I.–62
Sorokin, A. I.–100
Spiridov, G. A.–16, 25
Steinhoff, J.–9
Stessel, A. M.–23
Stolbov, N. G.–61
Studzinski, Zdzislaw–119
Suvorov, A. B.–17, 18

T

Toll, E. V.–28
Tributs, V. F.–61
Truman, Harry–81, 86, 87
Tsvetanova, Emilia–137
Tsybulko, V. G.–58
Tunstall, Brian–68

U

Ushakov, F. F.–17, 18, 25

W

Westphal, Siegfried–67
White, Kevin–134
Wrangel, F. P.–26
Wrangel, P. N.–45

V

Yegorov, G. M.–133, 134
Yumashev, I. S.–79

Z

Zinoviev, N.–56
Zhiltsov, I.–103
Zhukov, G. V.–56

Brief Service Records of Some Personalities in Name Index

ANDREYEV, Vladimir Alexandrovich (born 1904), admiral. From 1923 on Baltic Fleet, and from 1932 on Pacific Fleet. May 1941: Chief of Staff, Black Sea Fleet squadron. April 1943: Commander-in-Chief, Northern Pacific and Sakhalin flotillas. 1946-1947: Chief of Staff, and 1947-1952: Commander-in-Chief, Black Sea Fleet. 1952-1955: Deputy Chief of General Staff of the Navy. 1961-1968: Chief, Naval Logistics. March 1968: retired.

ANTONOV, Neon Vasilyevich (1907–1948), rear-admiral. Began serving in 1926. 1930-1936: after graduating from the M. V. Frunze Naval College served on naval frontier coast guard units in the Soviet Far East. 1936-1941: Commander, coast guard *Vorovsky*. 1941-1942: Commander, gun-boat division, Baltic Fleet. 1942-1944: Chief of Staff, and January 1944–September 1944: Commander-in-Chief, Onega Flotilla. September 1944–June 1945: Commander, Porkkala-Udd naval base. June 1945: Commander-in-Chief, Amur Flotilla. In August-September 1945, the Amur Flotilla supported the lst and 2nd Far Eastern fronts in battles against the Japanese imperialists in Manchuria.

BELLINSGAUSEN, Faddey Faddeyevich (1778–1852), Russian explorer, admiral. 1803–1806: took part in the first Russian round-the-world voyage on board the *Nadezhda* under I. F. Krusenstern. 1819–1821: chief of round-the-world expedition which discovered Antarctica (1820) and a number of islands in the Atlantic and Pacific. A sea and an island in the Pacific, a cape in Sakhalin Island, an island in the Atlantic, and a shelf glacier in the Antarctic bear his name.

CHUIKOV, Vasily Ivanovich (born 1900), marshal of the Soviet Union. During Civil War of 1918–1920: company and regiment commander. Before World War II: army commander. 1940-1942: military attaché in China. 1942-1945: Commander, 62nd Army (later reorganised into 8th Guards Army), which played a major role in the defence of Stalingrad and took part in liberating the Ukraine, Byelorussia, and Poland, and in storming Berlin. After the war: Commander-in-Chief, Soviet Army Group in Germany; Commander, Kiev Military District; Commander-in-Chief, Soviet Army; and Chief of the USSR Civil Defence.

DEZHNEV, Semyon Ivanovich (1605-1673), Russian explorer and navigator. In the early 1640s took part together with M. Stadukhin and others in expeditions in the extreme north of Siberia. 1648: together with F. A. Popov sailed from the Kolyma River to the Arctic Ocean; then sailed around Chukotka Peninsula from north to reach the strait between Asia and America. The extreme eastern tip of Asia, a mountain range in Chukotka, and a bay on the western coast of the Bering Sea are named in his honour.

DYBENKO, Pavel Yefimovich (1889–1938), Soviet military leader and active participant in Civil War. Active in the revolutionary movement from 1907 onwards. For revolutionary propaganda among sailors and soldiers was twice arrested by tsarist government, and in July 1917 by Russian Provisional Government. Was active in preparing Baltic Fleet for October armed uprising. During Russian Civil War commanded sailor detachments on various battlefronts. Was one of the organisers of Soviet Navy. In 1925

served in central apparatus of the Red Army. 1928-1938: commander of military districts.

GEIDEN, Login Petrovich (Ludwig Sigismund Jacob) (1772-1850), Russian admiral of Dutch origin. Served in Russian Imperial Navy from 1795. Took part in Ushakov's Mediterranean expedition of 1798–1800 and in other wars. 1827: as commander of a Baltic Fleet squadron sailed to Mediterranean to take part in Battle of Navarino. 1828–1829: during Russo-Turkish War was Commander-in-Chief of Russian Fleet in the Mediterranean, and from 1830 held commanding posts in the Baltic Fleet.

GOLOVKO, Arseny Grigoriyevich (1906–1962), Soviet admiral. Before World War II: served in Black Sea, Baltic, Pacific and Northern fleets and in Amur and Caspian flotillas. Took part in Spanish Civil War of 1936–1939. 1940–1946: Commander-in-Chief, Northern Fleet. From 1946 served as Chief of General Staff of the Navy and Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy; made major contribution to naval construction, combat and operational training, and education of naval officers.

GOLOVNIN, Vasily Mikhailovich (1776–1831), Russian navigator, vice-admiral, and Corresponding Member of St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences. 1807: appointed Commander of the sloop *Diana* and head of a research expedition in the Pacific, sailed from Kronstadt to Kamchatka and prepared a description of the Kuril Islands; at that time was once taken prisoner by the Japanese. 1817–1819: sailed around the world on the sloop *Kamchatka*. Was very active in consolidating Russian Navy. One of the straits in the Kurils, a bay in Norton Sound (Alaska), and an active volcano on Kunashir Island are named in his honour.

GORSHKOV, Sergei Georgiyevich (born in 1910), admiral of the fleet. Before World War II served in Black Sea and Pacific fleets. In the beginning of war took part in naval actions on Black Sea. From October 1941: Commander of the Azov Flotilla, which took part in the defence of Novorossiisk. From April 1944: Commander, Danube Flotilla, which took part in Jassy-Kishinev operation and supported 2nd and 3rd Ukrainian fronts in Belgrade and Budapest operations. 1945–1948: Squadron Commander, Black Sea Fleet. 1948–1951: Chief of Staff, then Commander of Black Sea Fleet. From July 1955: First Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy. From January 1956: Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy and USSR Deputy Minister of Defence. Made major contribution to naval development and construction; today a leading naval theoretician, author of several scientific publications.

KORNILOV, Vladimir Alexeyevich (1806-1854), Russian naval leader, vice-admiral, hero of defence of Sevastopol of 1854–1855, an outstanding expert on naval art. Till 1849 served on Black Sea Fleet ships. 1849: Chief of Staff, Black Sea Fleet. In September 1854, when Sevastopol was faced with direct threat, Kornilov was appointed chief of Sevastopol district; subsequently, as chief of garrison staff, headed the defence of the city. The fortifications quickly built under his supervision played a major role in the heroic defence of Sevastopol. On October 5, 1854 mortally wounded on Malakhov Barrow when inspecting fortifications.

KOTSEBU, Otto Evstafyevich (1788–1846), Russian navigator and scientist, captain lst Rank. In 1803-1806 took part in round-the-world voyage of the vessel *Nadezhda* under I. F. Krusenstern. 1815–1818: Commander of *Ryurik*, specially sent to do geographic research in the Pacific and explore

the way into the Atlantic along the northern coast of America. The expedition discovered several islands in Tuamotu Archipelago and in the Marshall Islands, and also a bay in Western Alaska which bears Kotsebu's name. 1823–1826: head of round-the-world expedition on naval sloop *Predpriyatiye*; discovered new islands in Tuamotu, Samoa, and in Ralik Range of Marshall Islands, and performed important oceanographic investigations.

KRUSENSTERN, Ivan Fyodorovich (1770–1846), Russian navigator, one of the founders of oceanography, admiral, and Honorary Member of St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences. In 1803–1806 headed first Russian round-the-world expedition on sloops *Nadezhda* and *Neva* and described it in a three-volume work. From 1811 Inspector and in 1827–1842 Director of Naval School. In 1823–1827 published two-volume *South Sea Atlas*. Straits and islands in the Pacific and a cape in Alaska were named in his honour.

KUZNETSOV, Nikolai Gerasimovich (1902–1974), Soviet naval leader, vice-admiral. During the Russian Civil War of 1918–1920 took part in battles with White Guards. 1932–1934: served on Black Sea Fleet. 1936: naval attaché and chief naval adviser in Spain. 1937-1939: Deputy Commander, then Commander of Pacific Fleet. 1939–1946: the USSR People's Commissar for Navy and Commander-in-Chief of the Navy. 1948–1951: Deputy Commander-in-Chief for Navy of Soviet Forces in the Far East and Commander of Pacific Fleet. 1951–1953: USSR Navy Minister. 1953–1956: First Deputy Minister of Defence and Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy. Made major contribution to Soviet naval development and construction. Author of memoirs *Battle Alarm on Fleets* and *Heading to Victory*.

LAZAREV, Mikhail Petrovich (1788–1851), Russian admiral, naval commander and also scientist and explorer of the Antarctic. Made three round-the-world voyages. 1819–1821: as Commander of sloop *Mirny* and assistant to F. F. Bellinsgausen, chief of first Russian Antarctic expedition, took part in the discovery of Antarctica and numerous islands. In 1827 took part in the Battle of Navarino as Commander of battleship *Azov* and Chief of Staff of squadron under Admiral L. P. Geiden. 1832-1833: Chief of Staff, Black Sea Fleet. Commander of Russian naval expedition to the Bosphorus in 1833. 1833–1851: Commander-in-Chief, Black Sea Fleet and ports; also Military Governor of Sevastopol and Nikolaev. A progressive thinker with great naval and organising talents, he made substantial contribution to the theory and practice of naval art and to Russian naval construction. An atoll in Tuamotu Archipelago in the Pacific, a cape in the Amur estuary, a cape in the north of Unimak Island, an island in the Aral Sea, and an inlet and port in the Sea of Japan all bear his name.

LISYANSKY, Yuri Fyodorovich (1773–1837), Russian navigator, captain lst rank. Took part in first Russian round-the-world expedition of 1803–1806 under I. F. Krusenstern as Commander of the sloop *Neva*. Till 1809 served on Baltic Fleet and then retired. An island in the northwestern Hawaii, a peninsula on the northern coast of the Sea of Okhotsk, and a mountain in Sakhalin Island were named in his honour.

LITKE, Fyodor Petrovich (1797–1882), Russian navigator and geographer, Arctic explorer, admiral, Honorary Member and President of St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences, and honorary member of many Russian and foreign scientific institutions. In 1817–1819 took part in round-the-world voyage under V. M. Golovnin. 1821–1824: chief of expedition which investigated and described the west coast of Novaya Zemlya, the Murmansk shoreline, the White Sea, and the eastern Barents Sea. 1826–1829: Commander of round-the-world expedition on sloop *Senyavin*; the expedition collected a wealth of oceanographic, ethnographic, zoological and botanical material; also discovered and described a number of islands. Litke was a co-founder and Vice-President of the Russian Geographic Society. In 1846 he became Chairman of the Russian Naval Scientific Committee. Several places in Novaya Zemlya, Franz Josef Land, and Nordenskjöld Archipelago were called in his honour.

MAKAROV, Stepan Osipovich (1848–1904), Russian naval leader and scientist, vice-admiral. Till 1876 served on warships. In 1899 appointed Chief Commandant of Kronstadt seaport. In the beginning of Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905 was appointed Commander of Russian Pacific Squadron. Was killed on March 31, 1904 on board the battleship *Petropavlovsk*, which exploded on a mine. Makarov was the author of over 50 scientific works on naval tactics, gunnery, architecture, mine engineering, oceanology, etc. He was also the founder of the theory of ship unsinkability and initiator of the construction of destroyers and torpedo boats. His main scientific works were translated into several foreign languages, brought him world fame, and substantially influenced further development of naval art.

MIKLUKHO-MAKLAI, Nikolai Nikolayevich (1846–1888), Russian scientist, explorer and public figure. In 1866–1869 visited the Canary Islands, Madeira, Morocco, and the Red Sea shore to study marine fauna and the cultures of the indigenous population. In subsequent years, he investigated the anthropology and ethnography of the aborigines of Southeast Asia, Australia, and Pacific islands. He spent two and half years on the northeast coast of New Guinea and won the affection and trust of the people there; he also went on two difficult and dangerous expeditions inside Malacca Peninsula, and lived for a long time in Indonesia and Australia. The results of his anthropological and ethnographical studies are of major scientific significance. He not only subjected racism to scientific criticism, but took practical steps in the defence of the freedom and independence of the nations he studied.

NAKHIMOV, Pavel Stepanovich (1802–1855), Russian admiral, outstanding naval leader, and organiser of the defence of Sevastopol during the Crimean War. Was commander of several warships. 1846–1851: Brigade and Squadron Commander of Black Sea Fleet. When Commander and Military Governor of Sevastopol in 1854-55 displayed outstanding abilities in organising its defence from sea and land. Killed in action in 1855. The Soviet government instituted First and Second Class Nakhimov Orders, a Nakhimov Medal, and special Nakhimov naval schools for teenager cadets. A Soviet cruiser and a higher naval college are named after Nakhimov.

NEVELSKOY, Gennady Ivanovich (1813–1876), Russian admiral, explorer of the Far East. In 1848–1849 as Commander of naval transport *Baikal*, sailed with cargo from Kronstadt around Cape Horn to Petropavlovsk-Kamchatsky; then sailed into the Sea of Okhotsk, explored the area and described northern Sakhalin, Sakhalin Bay, and the Amur estuary. Nevelskoy proved that Sakhalin is an island, not a peninsula (as claimed before), and established the accessibility of the Amur for sea vessels. 1850–1855: chief of expedition which explored the lower reaches of the Amur, Sakhalin

Island and Tatar Strait. The narrowest part of Tatar Strait, as well as a bay, mountain and town in Sakhalin, bear his name.

OKTYABRSKY, Filipp Sergeyevich (1899–1969), Soviet admiral. Joined the Navy in 1918, serving as assistant motorman and motorman on various ships; also served on torpedo boats in the Baltic and the Pacific. Was Commander of Amur Flotilla. 1939–1943: Commander, Black Sea Fleet. After World War II: First Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy; held other important posts in the Soviet Armed Forces. A Soviet warship is named in his honour.

PETER THE GREAT (1672–1725), Russian emperor, outstanding statesman and military leader. In the interests of the nobility and the upcoming bourgeoisie undertook reforms in economy and in diverse spheres of the social and state systems. A major reform was the creation in Russia of a regular Army and Navy. The young Russian Navy under Peter the Great routed the Swedish Fleet and secured Russia's positions in the Baltic. In 1715, he founded the Naval Academy. Historically, his policies were progressive. But all his reforms were accompanied by consolidation of serfdom and bureaucracy in the early 18th century.

POPOV, Alexandr Stepanovich (1859–1906), outstanding Russian scientist, the inventor of the wireless. 1883–1901: instructor at officers' classes for torpedomen in Kronstadt, where he conducted his principal investigations and invented the wireless telegraph. In November 1899, when testing a radiotelegraph in the Baltic, Popov was the first in the world to discover radio detection and ranging. In 1900, he became Head of the Department of Physics, St. Petersburg Institute of Electrical Engineering, and in 1905 Director of the institute.

PREOBRAZHENSKY, Yevgeny Nikolayevich (1909–1963), Air Force colonel-general. From 1903 served in Baltic naval aviation as pilot, squadron commander, and bomber regiment commander; in July 1941, mine-torpedo regiment commander. On August 8, 1941, he led the first air attack on Berlin. In subsequent war years, he was Commander of Baltic Fleet Bomber Brigade, Chief of Staff of Northern Fleet aviation, Deputy Commander of Northern and, later, Pacific Fleet aviation. From 1950, Commander-in-Chief of Naval Aviation.

RUSANOV, Vladimir Alexandrovich (1875–1913), Russian polar explorer. Took part in the revolutionary movement and was repeatedly arrested. In 1907 emigrated to Paris, where in 1907 graduated from the university. In 1908, took part in a French expedition and, in 1909–1910 and 1911, in Russian expeditions to Novaya Zemlya. In 1912, chief of an expedition on the *Hercules* which was to prospect coal deposits in Spitzbergen and sail via the Northern Sea Route to Bering Strait. In the same year, the expedition was lost. In his four travels to Novaya Zemlya Rusanov surveyed its western coasts and collected vast geological, botanical, and other material.

SEDOV, Georgy Yakovlevich (1877–1914), senior lieutenant. Investigated and mapped water bodies, seas and islands in northeast Asia and the Far East. In August 1912, he led an expedition on the *Svyatoy Foka* to the North Pole. The ship was ice-bound and in 1913 wintered first off the western coast of Novaya Zemlya and then off Franz Josef Land. In the early February 1914, Sedov and two sailors reached the Pole in a dog sleigh, and died of scurvy soon after. The expedition performed important

investigations in Novaya Zemlya and on the islands of Franz Josef Land.

SENYAVIN, Dmitry Nikolayevich (1763–1831), Russian naval leader, admiral. Took part in building Sevastopol and the Black Sea Fleet. During Ushakov's Mediterranean expedition of 1798–1800, was Commander of the battleship *Svyatoy Pyotr*. In 1806, when Commander of Russian Armed Forces in the Adriatic, prevented the French from capturing the Ionian Islands and took several important fortresses. In 1807, blockaded the Dardanelles and defeated the Turkish fleet in the battles of the Dardanelles and Afon. In 1825, was appointed Commander of Baltic Fleet. A group of Caroline Islands is named after Senyavin.

SMIRNOV, Nikolai Ivanovich (born 1917), Soviet naval leader. During World War II was a submarine commander. After the war, served on Black Sea Fleet as commander of various units. 1956–1957: Commander of Black Sea Fleet Submarine Forces. 1959–1960: Commander of Baltic Submarine Forces. 1960–1964: Chief of Staff, Black Sea Fleet. 1964–1969: Deputy Chief of General Staff of the Navy. 1969–1974: Commander of Pacific Fleet. From September 1974, First Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy.

SPIRIDOV, Grigory Alexeyevich (1713–1790), Russian admiral. Sailed in the Caspian, Azov, White and Baltic seas. Took part in Seven-Year War (1756–1763) and in Russo-Turkish wars. Was victorious as commander of Russian fleet in Khios Strait and in the 1770 Battle of Chesma, during which the Turkish fleet was almost completely annihilated by artillery fire and fire-ships. Made major contribution to development of Russian naval art.

SUVOROV, Alexandr Vasilyevich (1729–1800), Russian military leader, one of the architects of Russian military art, generalissimo. As a military leader who never knew defeat and a theoretician, Suvorov occupies a major place in Russian military history. He was in command in numerous battles against Turkish and other forces, and showed himself a brilliant tactician and strategist. Suvorov's major principles of military art were adopted and further developed by Russian military leaders and, to a certain degree, showed in the military art of the Soviet Army during its making. The Soviet government instituted the Suvorov Order as one of the highest awards for service in action, and specialised secondary military schools bear his name.

TRIBUTS, Vladimir Filippovich (1900–1978), Soviet naval leader, admiral, Doctor of Science (History). During Russian Civil War (1918–1920) served in the Astrakhan and Volga-Caspian flotillas and in units in the Caspian Sea. In 1926–1936 served on warships of Baltic Fleet. February 1938–April 1939: Chief of Staff, Baltic Fleet. 1939–1947: Commander, Baltic Fleet. 1947–1948: Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Forces in the Far East for the Navy. Subsequently held commanding posts in the Soviet Navy and USSR Ministry of Defence.

USHAKOV, Fyodor Fyodorovich (1744–1817), Russian naval leader, admiral. Commanded warships on the Baltic and Black seas. In 1778, the advance-guard of the Black Sea squadron under his command played a decisive role in the Battle of Fidonisi. As Commander of the Russian Black Sea Fleet, Ushakov in 1790 won brilliant victories over the Turkish fleet. He displayed his outstanding qualities as naval leader and strategist during

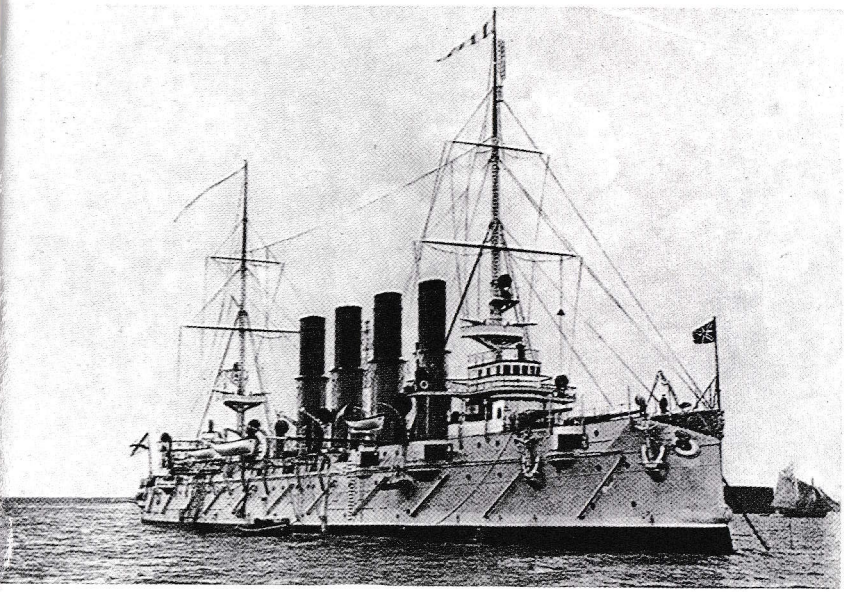
the Mediterranean expedition of the Russian squadron in 1798–1800, especially when in 1799 he attacked and captured the fortress of Corfu. An inlet in the southeast Barents Sea and a cape on the northern coast of the Sea of Okhotsk were named after Ushakov, as were warships of the Russian Navy before the revolution and of the Soviet Navy. The Soviet government instituted First and Second Class Ushakov Orders and an Ushakov Medal.

WRANGEL, Ferdinand Petrovich (1796–1870), Russian navigator, admiral, and Honorary Member of the St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences. 1817–1819: took part in Golovnin's round-the-world voyage on the sloop *Kamchatka*. In 1820, when he was only lieutenant, Wrangel was appointed chief of expedition, which for four years in very difficult conditions explored and mapped the Siberian coastline from the estuary of the Indigirka River to Kolyuchinskaya Bay, and partly the Medvezhyi Islands; the expedition also conducted important navigational, hydrographic, geomagnetic, and climatic investigations. In 1825–1827, Wrangel made his second round-the-world voyage, this time as Commander of the naval transport *Krotky*. In 1829–1835, he was Governor-General of Russian colonies in Alaska and in 1840–1849, Director of the Russian-American Company, also in Alaska. In 1855–1857, he was Minister of the Navy. He wrote several books on geography. An island in the Arctic and a mountain and a cape in Alaska were named after him.

YEGOROV, Georgy Mikhailovich (born 1918), admiral of the Fleet. During World War II: navigator, then assistant commander and, from September 1944, commander of a Baltic Fleet submarine. From February 1950 served in Pacific Fleet as submarine commander, unit commander, and Chief of Staff of submarine flotillas. 1959–1962: Commander, Northern Fleet Submarine Flotilla. 1963–1967: Chief of Staff, Northern Fleet. 1967–1972: Deputy Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy for combat training. 1972–1977: Commander-in-Chief, Northern Fleet. 1977: Chief of General Staff of the Navy.

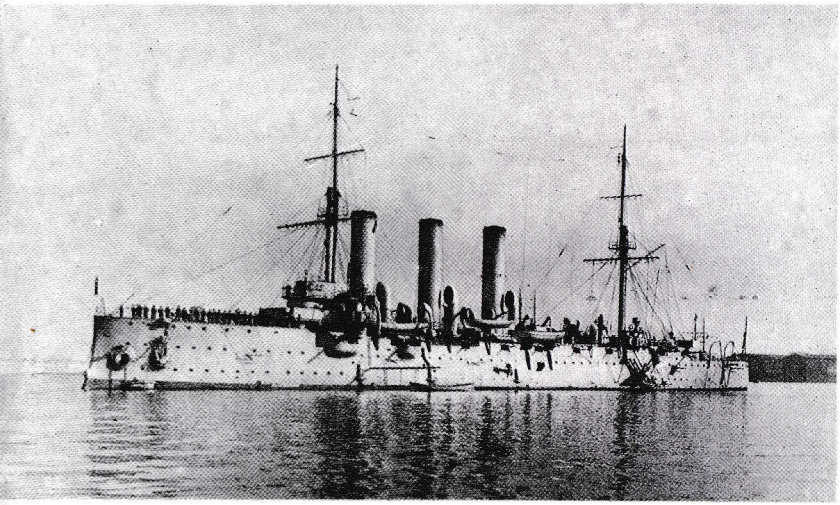
YUMASHEV, Ivan Stepanovich (1895–1972), admiral. Started service in 1926 in Black Sea Fleet. Later destroyer and cruiser commander. 1934–1937: naval unit commander. 1938–1939: Commander-in-Chief, Black Sea Fleet. March 1939–1947: Commander-in-Chief, Pacific Fleet. 1947–1951: Commander-in-Chief of Soviet Navy and Minister of the Navy. 1951–1957: Head of Soviet Naval Academy.

ZHUKOV, Gavriil Vasilyevich (1899–1957), Soviet vice-admiral. Began serving in Soviet Navy in 1918. Before World War II, commanded the gun-boat *Krasnaya Abkhazia*, the cruiser *Maxim Gorky*, and a detachment of training vessels. From March 1940, Commander of Odessa naval base. From August 1941, Commander of Odessa Defence District; a top figure in the defence of Odessa in August–October 1941. From December 1941, Deputy Commander of Black Sea Fleet for Sevastopol land defences and one of the leading figures in the city's defence of 1941–1942. From April 1942, Commander of Tuapse naval base, which played an important role in the Battle of the Caucasus. In 1945, Commander of Odessa naval base and, in 1946–1948, of Southern Naval District of the Pacific Fleet. From September 1948, Commander of Black Sea Higher Naval College. Retired in 1951.

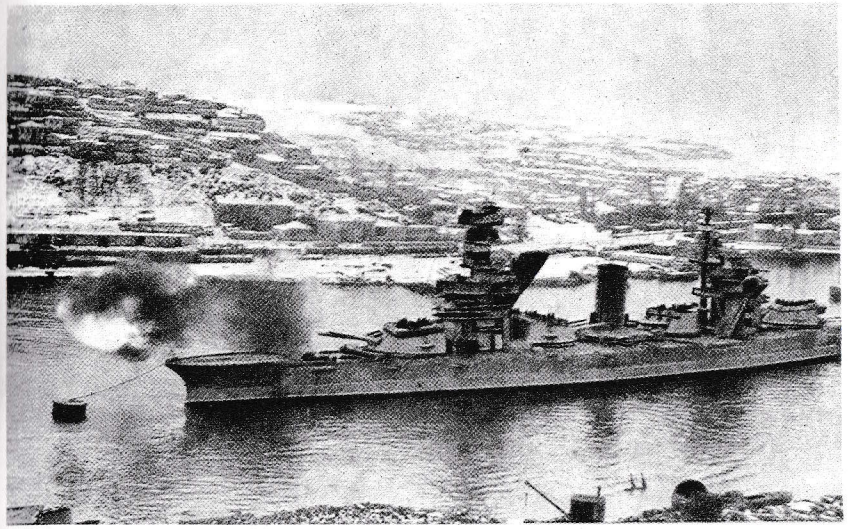


1. Cruiser *Varyag*

2. Cruiser *Aurora*

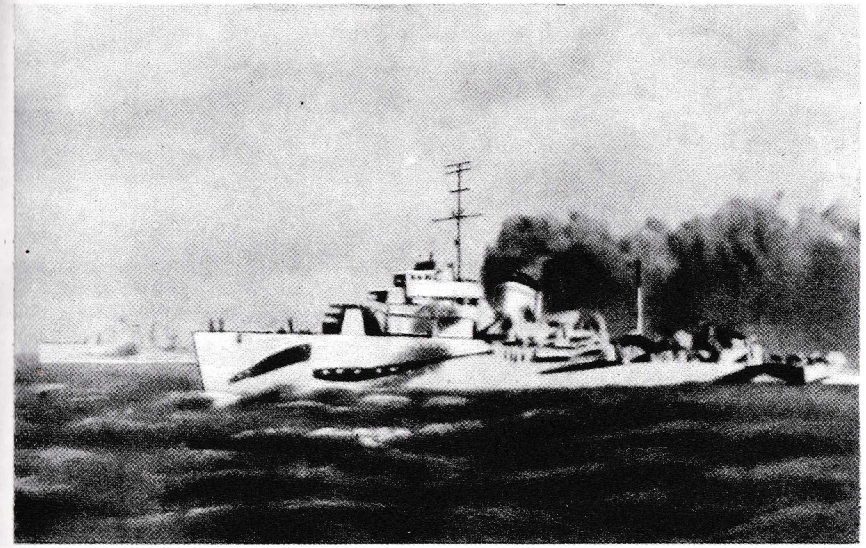


3. Baltic Fleet in northern seas, 1918

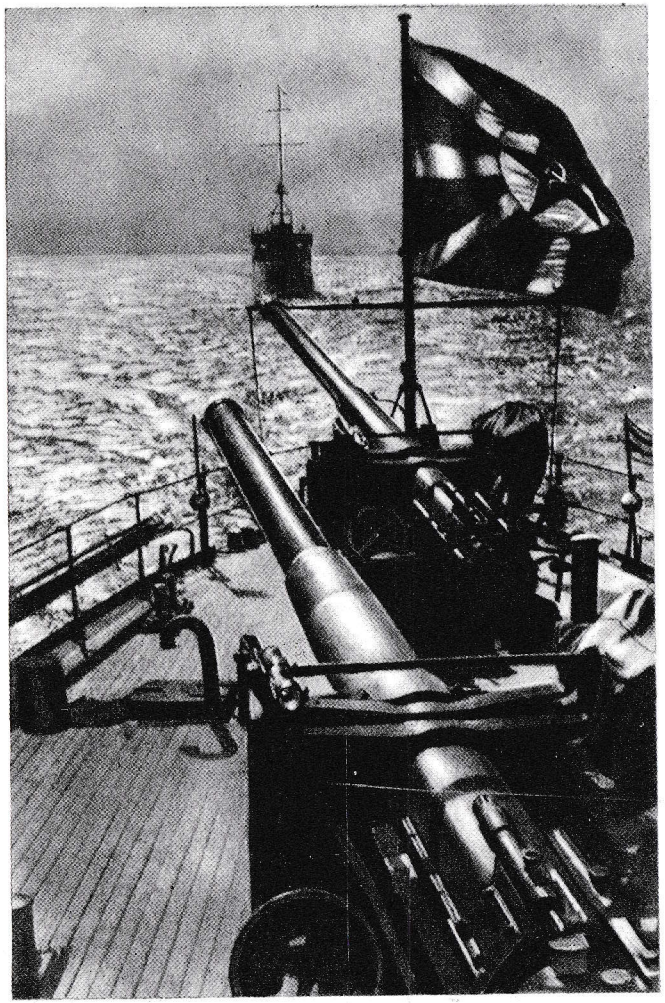


5. Battleship *Paris Commune* bombards nazi positions at Sevastopol, 1941

6. Soviet destroyers set up smokescreen for Allied convoys in the Barents Sea, 1942



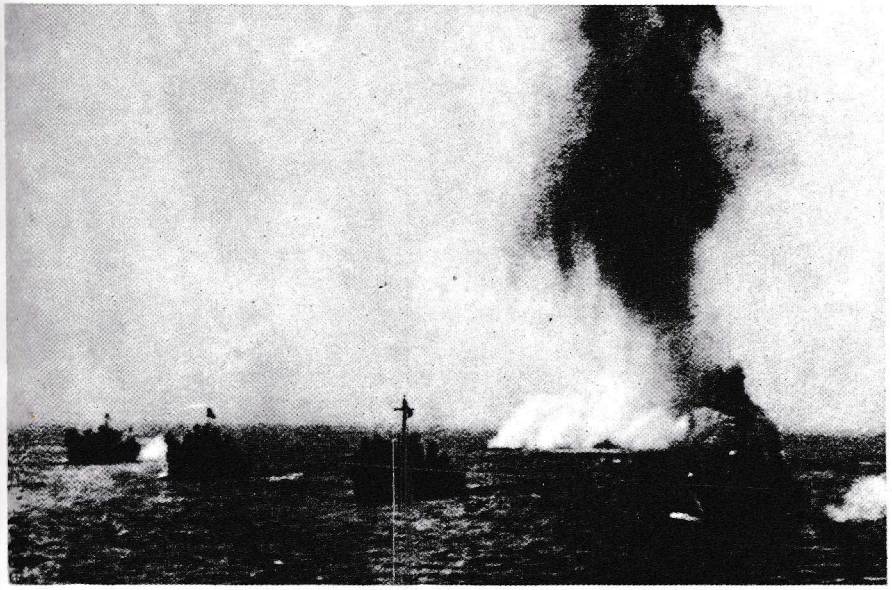
8. Landing party attacks an island

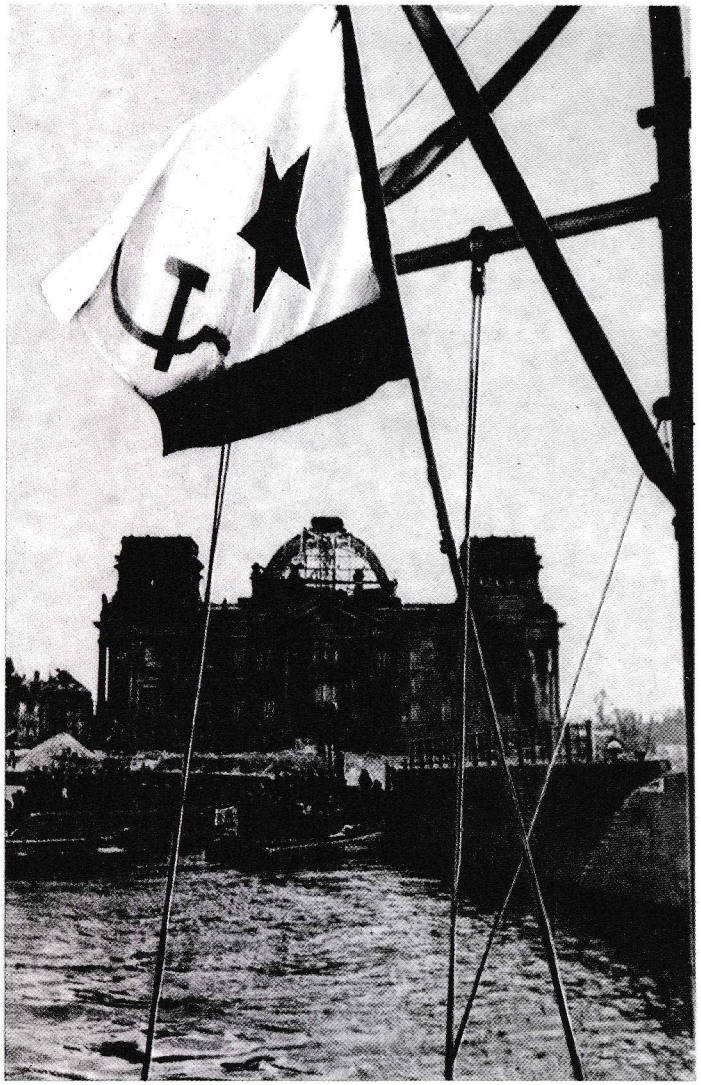


4. Ships of the Baltic Fleet on the move, 1932

7. Battle at Novorossiisk, 1942

9. Baltic Fleet hunter-killer boats on a mission, 1943

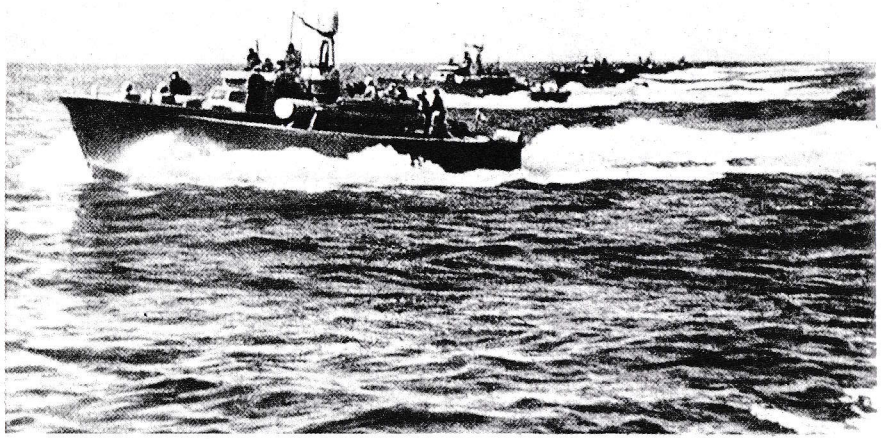




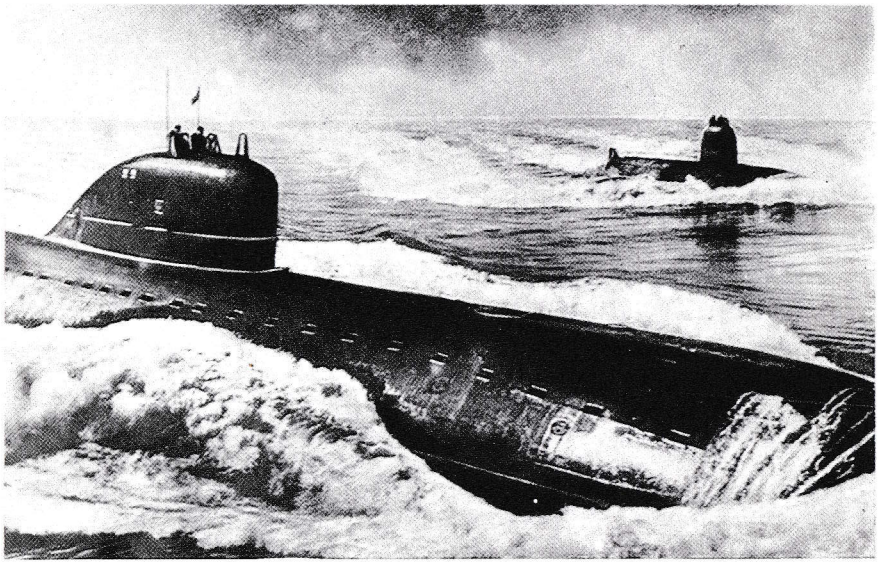
11. Ships of the Dnieper Flotilla on the Spree in Berlin, May 1945

13. Port Arthur cleared of Japanese, August 1945

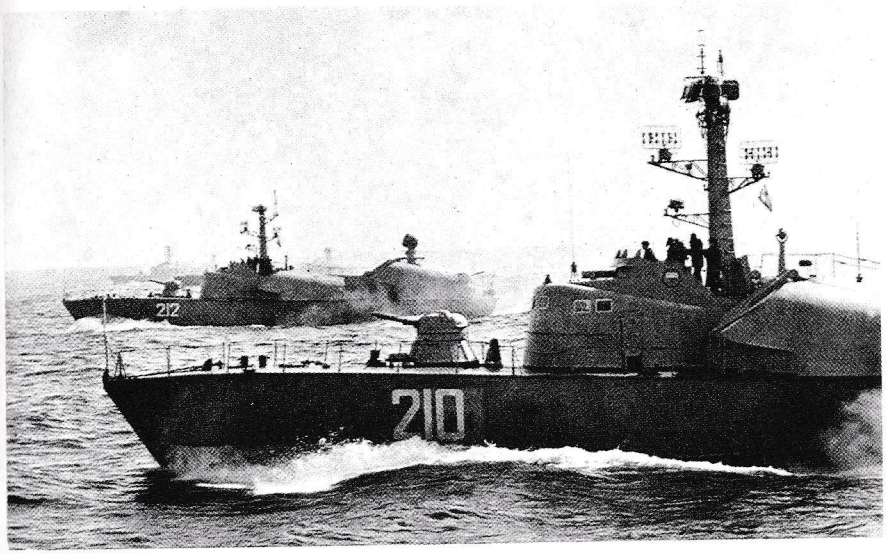
10. Sailors liberating Sevastopol, 9 May 1944



12. Torpedo boats heading for Seishin, Korea, August 1945

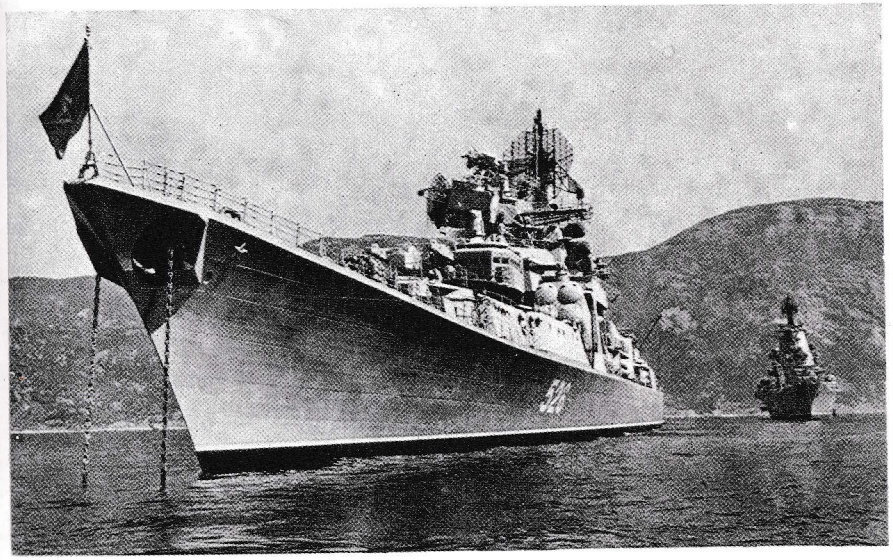


14. Nuclear submarines head for the open sea



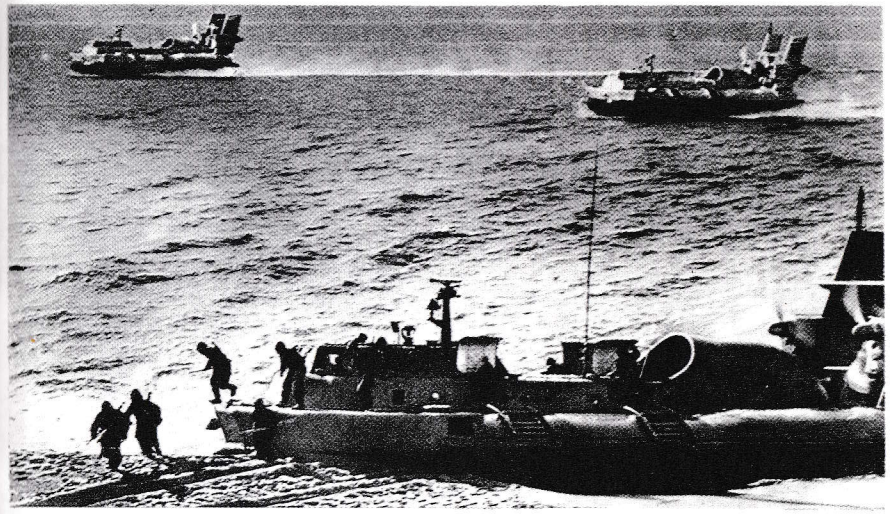
16. Missile-armed boats attacking

15. Large anti-submarine vessel

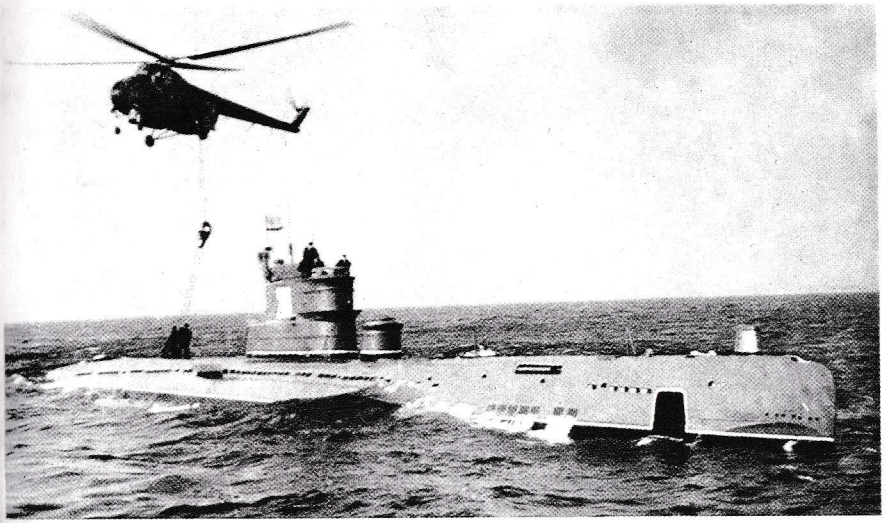


19. Naval aircraft join war games

17. Landing hovercraft
18. Flying boat

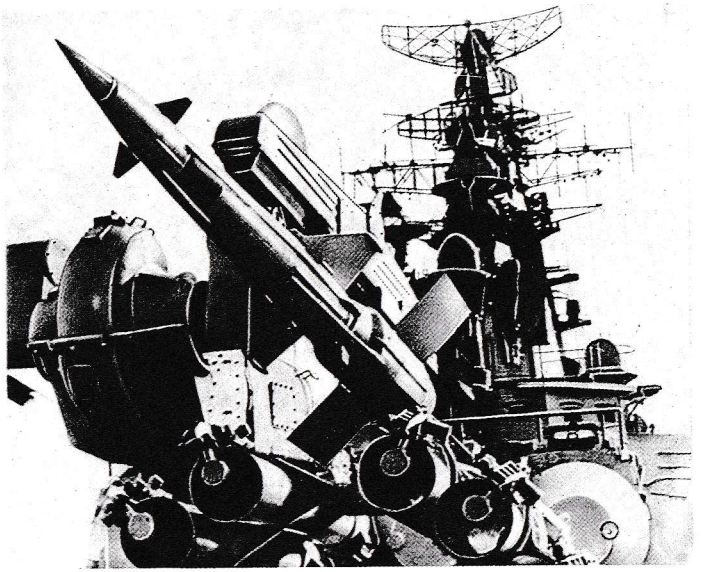


22. Flag-raising



20. Practising

21. On alert to repulse enemy air attack

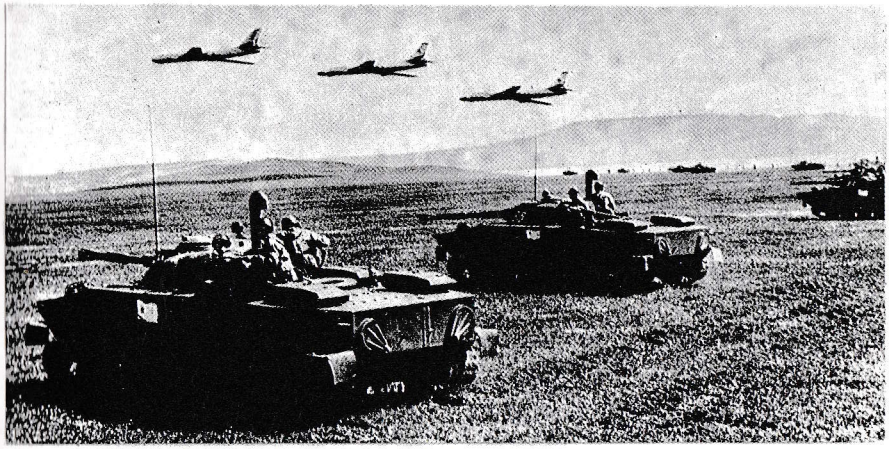


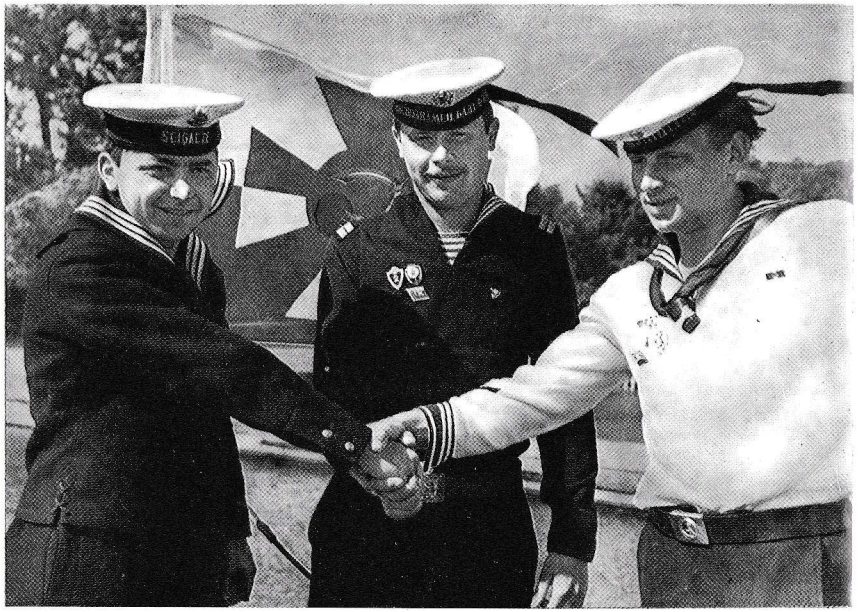
23. Landing personnel on a barren shore

26. Seamen at political classes

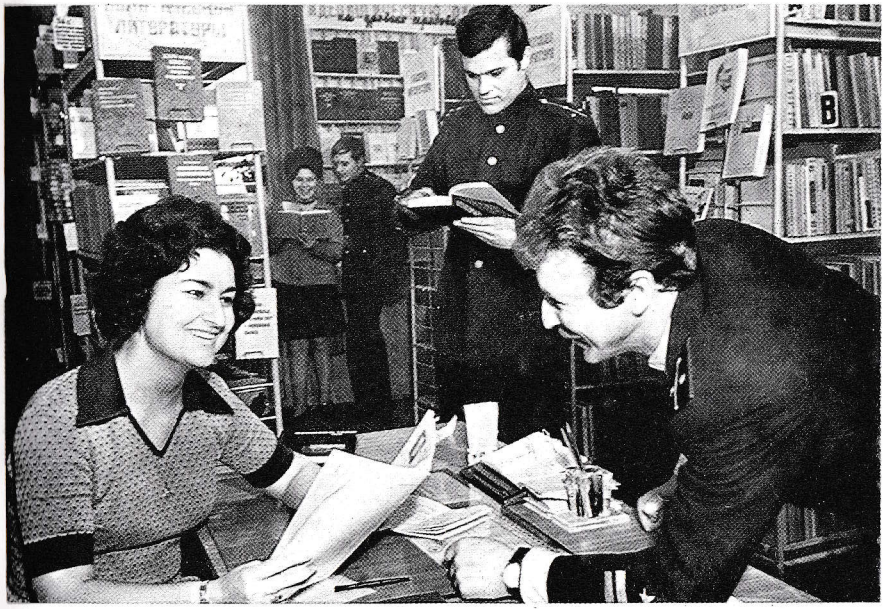
25. Marines in mock action

24. Tanks of marine units at practice





30. Brothers in arms. Seamen of fraternal navies of socialist countries



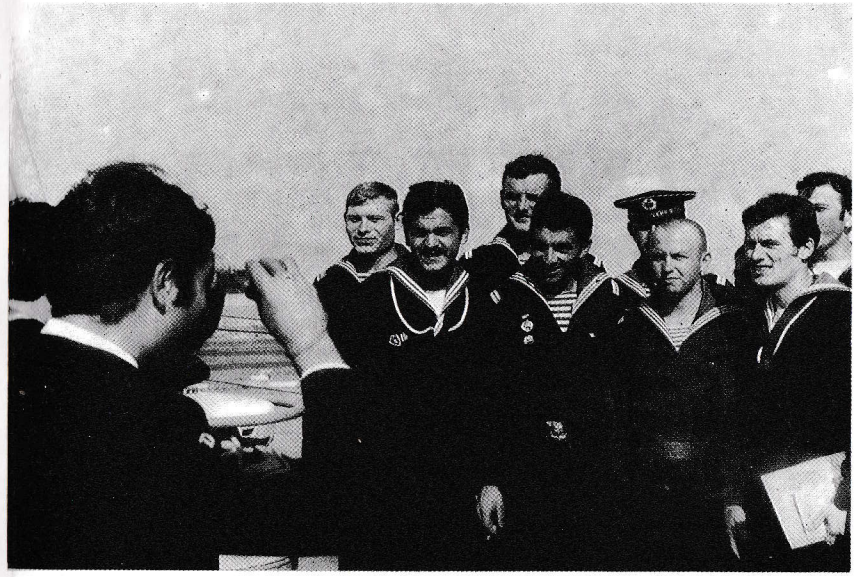
27. The garrison library

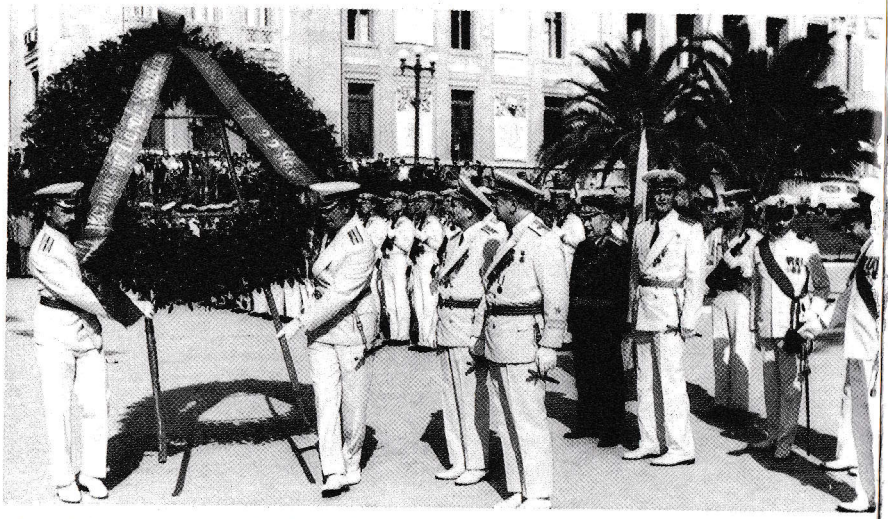
28. Off duty

31. Nigerian children visiting destroyer *Bravy*

34. Soviet seamen in Cherbourg

32. Soviet and Italian seamen mix. Taranto, Italy, October 1973





33. Placing wreaths at the foot of the monument to war heroes in Messina, 1973

29. Seamen on parade marking 60th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. Moscow, 7 November 1977

The Soviet Navy is an important component of the Soviet Armed Forces. Its duty is to protect the state interests of the USSR on the high seas and to defend the country from aggression. This book is about the origins, consolidation and development of the Soviet Navy. It includes the principal actions of the Soviet Navy during the Civil War (1918-1920) and the Great Patriotic War (1941-1945) and shows what the Navy is doing today with respect to the implementation of the Soviet policy of peace. It is also about the everyday life of Soviet naval personnel, and shows their make-up, their spirit of civic duty, patriotism and humanism.

The authors are military historians and journalists.